WALKER's HIBERNIAN MAGAZINE: OR, Compendium of Entertaining Knowledge, For MARCH, 1794.

Brief Memoirs of the Rt. Hon. Lady Viſcounteſs Fitzgibbon.

(With an elegant Portrait.)

IT has ever been the wiſh of the Proprietor of this Magazine to give to the public, portraits of perſons remarkable for eminence, celebrity, or beauty. In the latter line, lady Fitzgibbon ſtands forward, if not the *firſt*, at leaſt *in the firſt line*, for the charms of her perſon.

She is the daughter of the late Richard Chapel Whaley, Eſq. by his ſecond wife, Anne, daughter of the Rev. Bernard Ward. She was early diſtinguiſhed for her beauty and accompliſhments, and in the year 1787 was married to the then Attorney General, who on the 20th of June 1789, was deſervedly promoted to the dignity of Lord High Chancellor of the kingdom of Ireland; on the 8th of July following, was advanced to the rank of a baron of this realm, and farther dignified laſt November by the title of Viſcount Fitzgibbon.

But this lady is highly diſtinguiſhed not only on the ſcore of rank or beauty, for ſhe is juſtly eſteemed for a native benevolence, and goodneſs of heart, which ſhine conſpicuouſly on every occaſion. She is ever one of the foremoſt in promoting every charitable purpoſe, and liberally aſſiſting every public amuſement that has humanity for its end: and as her taſte is exquiſite, ſhe leads the beneficence, encreaſes it greatly by her powerful example, and is a generous patroneſs of the profeſſors of the liberal and polite arts. Lady Fitzgibbon is one of the governeſſes of that noble charity, the houſe for the reception and employment of women leaving the Lock Hoſpital, and bringing them back to the paths of induſtry and virtue. Not one ſubſcription is ſet on foot for any humane purpoſe, but what has conſtantly her honoured name in the liſt. Nay, we are credibly informed that her *private* charities exceed thoſe that example requires ſhould be made public. —Beauty, all mankind admire; but when it is joined with an extenſive Benevolence, it renders the poſſeſſor not only an object of admiration, but of reverence and general eſteem.

Eſſay on Scandal.

The infant in the mother's womb,
The ſacred aſhes in the tomb;
The veſtal, innocent and pure,
The friend who thinks himſelf ſecure;
The honeſt pauper in his cot,
The crime atoned for and forgot.
Not one eſcapes aſſaſſination,
Vile ſcandal murder's reputation.

THE atrocious crime of ſcandal, and the numerous and horrid conſequences that attend it, are too obvious; it is the deſtroyer of peace, the confiſcator of property, and the ruin of reputation. What a miſtaken idea of principle doth many now a-days poſſeſs, many who would ſcruple an omiſſion of Sunday's divine ſervice, but would not (even in the place of worſhip) heſitate to rob you of your good name. The law having ſuch an abhorrence to that dangerous evil, has provided a puniſhment for the guilty, but alas! a poor reparation for the injured. Some

ignorant that ſuch a law exiſts, others from a miſtaken lenity, and others from a falſe delicacy, timidly ſuffers the dark aſſaſſin to roam at large. As a proof of my aſſertion that ſome redreſs may be had, I recollect that a few years back, ſeveral perſons both males and females were cited to appear before the eccleſiaſtical court to anſwer charges exhibited againſt them for defamation. The frail females, and the unmanly males could not procure an advocate, conſcience forbid it, and confuſion told it. After receiving a ſevere but merited rebuke, a bill at ſight for all expences was drawn upon their pockets as a tax on illiberality of ſpeech; they departed upbraiding each other as being the original manufacturer and vender of the ſcandal. I enjoyed their embarraſſed ſituation in hopes the example would be productive of a reform in others. As to the culprits in queſtion, a good and great effect was the reſult, for from their prudent ſilence ſince that time, they have been honoured with the title of the Locked-Jaw club.

We may be prepared againſt the attacks of the highwayman, houſe-breaker, or footpad, but who can parry the unfair thruſt of the tongue of ſcandal? it purſues unſeen, and aſſaſſin like when your back is turned, you receive the fatal blow from that weapon of deſtruction; too ſoon is felt its dire effects, which are of that noxious lingering quality, as baffles the power of art; peace and content once deſtroyed, death is the only remedy; it is therefore devoutly to be wiſhed that all dealers in ſcandal, who wantonly ſport with honeſt reputation and maliciouſly violate unſpotted credit, may become bankrupts in ſociety and examples to futurity.

Reflections on Man.

Pronaque cum ſpectent animalia cætera terram;
Os homini ſublime dedit; cœlumque tueri,
Juſſit et erectos ad ſideri tollere vultus.

IN theſe deſcriptive lines, the obſerving as well as feeling and fanciful Ovid, diſplays the ſtriking ſuperiority of man to all other living creatures on earth, in point of elegance and nobleneſs of form, erectneſs of ſtature, and ſublimity of countenance. For while other animals are deſtined by neceſſity, ſhape, and inclination, to grovel on the ground, human beings are formed erect; with a face expreſſive of the livelieſt emotions of the heart and ſentiments of the ſoul; capable and inclined to lift the eyes to heaven, and to claim acquaintance and affinity with ſuperior beings. The nobleneſs of the human ſtructure, and the facility with which the eye can be elevated to the ſkies, is but a ſignature of the divine principle within, a ſignature of our noble capacities, immortal proſpects, and of what ought to be our exalted aims. As the ſpirit of the beaſt goeth downward to the earth, ſo the ſpirit of man aſcendeth to heaven. And according to his original nature and final deſtination ſhould be his deſigns and purſuits. As the ſoul has the pre-eminence, being rational, ſublime and immortal, ſo ſhould be the objects of its higheſt affection, ambition, and happineſs. There cannot be a greater perverſion or degradation, than to purſue animal gratifications in preference to moral improvements, peaceful reflections, and the plaudits of heaven.

The dignity of man has been the favourite theme of many writers both antient and modern, and of ſome, who by their conduct, have contributed to its debaſement. For however exalted the mental faculties may be, to whatever ſublimity of honour or felicity he might be deſtined in his original formation, and how great ſoever his ſuperiority to the higheſt ranks in the animal creation, a vicious behaviour will render him more dangerous and deſpicable than the monſters of the deep, or the wild beaſts of the mountains.

Man connects the animal and ſpiritual worlds together, being compoſed of an animal body, and an intelligent ſpirit. And ſo long as he preſerves the ſuperiority of his rational part; and keeps his corporeal faculties, his ſenſes and members, his appetites and paſſions, in proper ſubordination and ſubjection, he maintains his rank in the aſcending ſcale of endleſsly di-

verſified

verſified beings, ſupports his own dignity, and aſcertains his title to the boaſted appellation of the lord of this lower world.

It is pleaſing and wonderful to conſider, that the dignity of man is impreſſed on his very countenance, and ſhines forth in his deportment. The fierceſt animals ſtand in awe of his majeſtic appearance, and retire with reſpect. It is the aſſertion of an apoſtle, that every kind of beaſts, and of birds, and of ſerpents, hath been tamed, or rather overcome and ſubdued, by mankind. There is one kind of animals indeed, as numerous as the human ſpecies, that are in perpetual hoſtility with man, and too often ſubdue and tyrannize over him. Greater vigilance and exertion are required to ſubjugate theſe, and to keep them in awe, than all the other tribes put together. Go where we will among thoſe whoſe main objects of purſuit are of a terreſtrial or ſenſual nature, and we ſhall find theſe animals in chace of rationals, making ſlaves of them, or hunting them down. In every devotee to corporeal gratifications, we behold the brute running away with the man. For my part, whenever I ſee parties of pleaſure flocking from the capital on a Sunday; and eſpecially when I diſcern among them the children of good families, and even of clergymen, I deeply deplore the depravity of my ſpecies, and ſecretly reſpect their horſes more than the two legged animals that ride them. Vicious habits are ſo inveterate and ſtupifying, and eſpecially habits of debauchery, that whoever is addicted to profligacy, excepting here and there a remarkable inſtance, muſt be given over as loſt. To encourage and conſole the hearts of pious parents, and of the friends of virtue, order, and humanity, hiſtory ſupplies us with a few rare inſtances of a reformation from abandoned wickedneſs, to exemplary ſobriety. Some of my readers will recollect the following.

"Polemon was a young Athenian of ſo debauched a character, that he was ſcarce ever ſober. One day as he was looſely dancing along the ſtreets with the player on the flute and a finging woman, juſt in ſuch a manner as Anacreon deſcribes thoſe who go in proceſſion to viſit the temple of the god Comus, he entered into the academy which was the ſchool of Plato, where Xenocrates taught at that time. This grave philoſopher ſeeing this young rake, immediately began to ſpeak of temperance and ſobriety to his diſciples. And he ſpoke with ſuch energy, that Polemon, ſtruck with his diſcourſe, upon the ſpot renounced his intemperance, tore the chaplet from his head, and caſting away all the ornaments of his luxury, applied himſelf ſo ſeriouſly to the ſtudy of virtue that, according to the expreſſion of Valerius Maximus, being cured by one wholeſome diſcourſe, of a moſt abandoned rake, he became one of the greateſt philoſophers, and ſucceded Xenocrates in the Platonic ſchool."

On Pride.

THAT the idea of pride may be limited, and diſtinctly known, and that it may not be confounded with a very noble and reſpectable quality, I ſhall endeavour to deſcribe a rational and manly ſpirit which, for the honour of our religion, I ſhould be ſorry to think inconſiſtent with chriſtianity.

So unequally are wealth and power diſtributed round the world, and our prejudices are ſo many and ſo ſtrong, that this rational and manly ſpirit is too often not very well received, even by the ſenſible and the liberal, from whom it ſhould always meet with the moſt hoſpitable reception. Two ſorts of men are its declared foes; they never fail to pronounce it pride. But their cenſure is praiſe. I mean thoſe who are actually proud themſelves, and thoſe who are groſsly ignorant.

The man of this generous and independent mind pays reſpect to perſons of rank, and to thoſe who are in public office, in proportion as the office or the rank is reſpectable. This he does as a good citizen of the community to which he belongs, and from his love of the order and harmony of ſociety. But he will never proſtitute to mere office, or title, the reſpect of the heart; and when a perſon of a frank and open character pays homage to any man, an

eye of common diſcernment will eaſily perceive whether or no the impulſe of his heart animates the form of his homage.

The poſſeſſor of a nabob's wealth, conſidered merely as an enormouſly rich man, commands no deference from him. If he is but a very private gentleman, with a poor income, he will converſe with this man of overgrown fortune only on equal terms: he will not punctiliouſly give him precedence; he will not ſooth him with one hypocritical ſmile; he will not aſſent to every thing he ſays; he will not liſten with a patient ear, and with a face apparently attentive and anxious to his fluent inſipidity, and accept it for Athenian wit. Yet the rich man, to whom he thus properly behaves, may think him inſufferably proud, and in all probability his friends think him fit for bedlam.

A perſon of the firm and honourable character which I am deſcribing, behaves, to his ſuperiors with an eaſy but ſignificant reſpect; to his equals with a manly and engaging politeneſs—a politeneſs leſs directed by the mechanical forms of the world, than by a good heart and good ſenſe; and to his inferiors, with a ſincere and active humanity.

It is the fullen pleaſure of the proud man to inſult and oppreſs thoſe who have leſs power than himſelf. The man of a rational and manly ſpirit could not give pain to the weak and the helpleſs without ſtabbing his own heart. The pride which God diſapproves, cringes to titles and enormous wealth. Laudable ſpirit is moſt reſolute, and inflexible in repelling any attack on its rights, when the invaſion is made by formidable power. To this reſiſtance it is urged with uncommon ardour, to guard itſelf from oppreſſion, to check the dangerous encroachments of the great, and to maintain, as far as lies in its power, what ſhould always be ſacred, the natural equality of mankind.

Though the characters of the proud man and the man of a generous and noble ſpirit are often confounded by the proud and by the vulgar, yet there is the ſame difference between them that there is between juſtice and injuſtice, courage and cowardice, vice and virtue.

☞ For a Deſcription of the annexed Plate, repreſenting an inſide View of the private Theatre, Fiſhamble-ſtreet, ſee our Magazine for March laſt.

A Propoſal for rendering Admiſſion into Theatres, and other crowded Places of Public Amuſement, perfectly ſafe and commodious.

"*Feſtina lente.*"

THE late fatal diſaſter at the theatre royal in the Hay-market, London, is an object of univerſal diſtreſs and concern, there being few perſons who have not, at ſome period or other, been more or leſs expoſed to the ſame danger. But I am not addreſſing you, Sir, with vain and fruitleſs lamentations upon this melancholy occaſion: I mean to offer a propoſal to thoſe who are more immediately concerned in the regulation of public places; which, if adopted, will in future prevent the poſſibility of a ſimilar accident, let the crowd be ever ſo great, or ever ſo eager for admiſſion. I do not, however, mean to confine myſelf to theatres where the door is too near the ſtreet, and the deſcent too rapid to admit of any modification conſiſtent with ſafety to the public. But, where there is a conſiderable length of paſſage or lobby from the ſtreet to the principal door, nothing ſurely can be more eaſy than to render admiſſion perfectly commodious and ſecure.

My plan is this:

Let the paſſage or lobby be divided into three or more compartments by as many ſtrong and ſubſtantial doors, in the centre of each of which there ought to be a ſmaller door capable of admitting two perſons with eaſe. Theſe ſmaller doors ſhould ſtand open, that thoſe perſons who come firſt may be able to get to the innermoſt door without hindrance or inconvenience; but, whenever that portion or diviſion of the lobby betwixt the innermoſt door and the next to it is filled, a regular door-

keep-

keeper ſhould ſhut and bolt the ſmall door. And now the ſecond diviſion of the lobby will begin gradually to fill by thoſe who are rather later in their arrival. And, as each diviſion fills, the ſmall doorsought to be ſucceſſively ſhut.

Let notice be given in the play-bills, and other advertiſements, that the innermoſt door will open preciſely at the uſual time of admiſſion, and the other great doors ſucceſſively in ſuch a number of minutes after, as ſhall be found by experience ſufficient to admit thoſe of the firſt diviſion or platoon to get into the houſe without hurry or danger. Now, it is evident that thoſe only can be admitted during the firſt ten, fifteen, or twenty minutes, who have fairly purchaſed the privilege by coming as early as they generally now do to the innermoſt door. I calculate that in ten, fifteen or twenty minutes, thoſe of the firſt diviſion may be ſeated in the houſe, and in ſtill leſs time that, thoſe of the ſecond will have taken the places in the firſt diviſion which the others had juſt left; thoſe behind will occupy the ſecond compartment; and ſo on, from one diviſion to another, there will be a regular and progreſſive advancement without danger or material obſtruction.

I can foreſee one objection only to this mode of admiſſion. It may be ſuggeſted that, ſuppoſing a lady, or any other perſon, in the firſt or ſecond diviſion ſhould be taken ill, or wiſh on any account to get again into the ſtreet, and return home, ſuch perſon will be impriſoned. This, however, is an inconvenience to which almoſt every perſon is at preſent obliged to ſubmit when once the crowd aſſembles. But, by the propoſal which I am now offering to your conſideration, this difficulty will be completely removed; for, the doorkeeper to each compartment of the lobby will be able with eaſe to accommodate the public upon ſuch an occaſion; and there is little doubt but that he would find his account in doing it.

The advantages, over and above thoſe of perſonal eaſe and ſafety, will be many. The public will thus be relieved from the inceſſant nuiſance and importunity of the orange-women and the bill of the play; the emolument of which I ſhall now ſuppoſe to be a perquiſite belonging to the door-keeper or his wife. The pickpockets in every diviſion would often find themſelves in a very aukward ſituation. Thoſe who are real lovers of the drama, and who are willing to wait with the greateſt patience and perſeverance, will thus be ſure of accommodation without danger, by early attendance; and ſo will all the others, till the houſe is completely filled.

One thing farther occurs to me. The innermoſt door ſhould not be ſuffered to open wide all at once; becauſe, ſuch is the nature of mankind, ſir (and I ſpeak it from experience), that, unleſs they are prevented, they *will* trample upon one another. I propoſe, therefore, that each half of the door ſhall be extended only ſo far as to form with the other a convenient angle in the middle; and now, a ſliding window-ſhutter on each ſide of the door ſhould immediately be drawn open, and diſcover the receivers of money and tickets in their boxes. And here, ſir, would be what in my younger days we uſed to denominate the ſtraights of Thermopylæ; through which I have often paſſed at the hazard of my life, in the days of Garrick, after a full hour's laborious ſtruggling. If each perſon that paſſes through this door pays his money there, he will meet with no farther obſtruction; and the houſe will certainly be filled in much leſs time than it can be done according to the preſent mode of admiſſion.

I have no doubt, ſir, but the proprietors of the theatre would ſoon be reimburſed for the expence of theſe different doors and additional attendants; becauſe numbers, who dread the crowding to a play, would, under this management, be tempted to partake of that rational amuſement.

On the Utility of Plutarch's Lives. By the Marquis D'Argenſon.

THE lives of Plutarch, if read attentively, are of all thoſe of ancient authors, the moſt capable of engaging young perſons to make reflections;

ons; and for which reaſon they ſeldom fail to do it: they would wiſh to be alternately Ariſtides, Lucullus, Scipio, Alcibiades, or Socrates; but independently that ſuch ideas paſs very rapidly, theſe perſonages lived in an age and country ſo different from ours, that there are not many applications to be made of our manner of thinking and acting to theirs. The parallels even that Plutarch ſtrove to make of the Greeks and the Romans, are neither very juſt nor uſeful; becauſe there was already too great a difference between the manners of the two nations, and the ſituations of their heroes. Nevertheleſs, we of the eighteenth century may reap ſome benefit, by conſidering theſe people dead, two thouſand years ago, at three thouſand five hundred leagues diſtance from us.

If I had a model in antiquity to follow, it ſhould be Julius Agricola, father-in-law of Tacitus. In ſuppoſing that his ſon-in-law has not overcharged his portrait, this great man has given the example of an individual, who, after having ſerved his country with honour, uprightneſs, and diſintereſtedneſs, in the higheſt degree poſſible, finding himſelf obliged to renounce the ſatisfaction of being uſeful to the public, devoted himſelf to the exerciſe of ſocial virtues; made his family and a ſociety of choſen friends happy, in the midſt of which he was ſolely concentered; and ſighed in ſecret, becauſe he was perſuaded, that to cry aloud againſt the evils which he could not remedy, was to encreaſe them. My ſon, to whom I have communicated my manner of thinking with reſpect to Agricola, is of a different opinion; he has found in ancient hiſtory, other perſonages more worthy of being taken for models, and I excuſe him on account of his youth and ſituation. He is juſt beginning his career, and mine is perhaps already too far advanced; before we think of going to bed, it is neceſſary at leaſt to have dined.

I ſhall never forget ſome paſſages of Tacitus in the life of Agricola his father in law: I will tranſcribe them in my own language, for I am of opinion, that they have not yet been tranſlated in ſuch a manner as they deſerve.

"Agricola being young, was exceſſively fond of ſtudy; perhaps more ſo than a man deſtined to a military life and public affairs ought to be; but his mother regulated his ſoaring inclination by ſciences and letters. Afterwards, age and reflection moderated his ardor, and gave him that uſtneſs of taſte for philoſophy, which is proper for a ſtateſman.

The people, whom he was charged to govern, did not remark in his conduct either humour, arrogance, or avarice: he was moderate and reaſonable; and what is exceedingly rare, his goodneſs loſt him none of the people's reſpect, nor his ſeverity their affection. Although he was obliged to increaſe the contributions, in order to provide for the ſubſiſtance of his army, he made them ſupportable by an equitable diviſion, and ſuppreſſed vexatious proſecutions, which bear heavier upon the people than even impoſitions.

Being returned home, after having filled the moſt honourable functions, he ſtrove by the moſt ſimple and modeſt exterior appearance, to make his great name and actions to be forgotten. He exerciſed himſelf in the practice of private virtues, in the boſom of his family and among his friends; many people on ſeeing Agricola, ſought in him the great man, and few diſcovered him at firſt ſight.

The affairs of the empire becoming worſe, the public voice called Agricola to his country's aſſiſtance, theſe cries ſtruck inceſſantly the ears of the emperor. Some perſons communicated them to him by way of advice; others repeated them through malignity, and with a view of irritating the prince againſt a man whom they had already unjuſtly ſlandered. It was thus that the virtues of Agricola concurred equally in loading him with honour, and precipitating his ruin.

Agricola was eaſy about the fate which hung over him; he did not brave the power of Domitian, and feared as little the evil he was capable of doing him; he ſighed for the fate of his country

try only, and this he did in ſecret. Let us learn by his example, that there is a kind of particular heroiſm for thoſe who live under the empire of tyrants; it conſiſts in not precipitating ourſelves fooliſhly into uſeleſs dangers, but in preparing ourſelves to ſupport every accident to which we are expoſed under bad princes.

If poſterity wiſh to know ſomething of the perſon of Agricola, he was rather proportionably formed than of a graceful figure; his phyſiognomy inſpired confidence; his air was rather affable and polite than impoſing; it was ſufficient to look at him to know that he was an honeſt man; and people were not aſtoniſhed when they diſcovered that he was a great man. His career was not very long, if the ordinary courſe of life be conſidered, as he died at the age of fifty years; but on examining the uſe he made of his time, he lived to a great age. Honoured with the conſulate, and inveſted with the triumphal robe, he had no other honour to deſire; without being very rich, he was ſufficiently ſo to ſupport his rank. He preſerved till his death, his virtues, his reputation, the affections of his relations and friends, and the eſteem of the public: finally it may be ſaid, that he gained happily a good port at the eve of ſtorms and tempeſts."

Remarks.

AMIABILITY is the ſafeſt and moſt advantageous quality to carry into ſociety. It is too dangerous to let any thing appear which characterizes the great man.

Commerce reconciles all nations: they all in the end, become enlightened by the ſciences; and the mental communications theſe eſtabliſh between men tends to deſtroy national prejudices. Commercial and thinking men have the univerſe for their country.

In the number of extravagant ideas with which the heads of madmen are filled, it ſeldom happens that they have one which inclines them to believe they are in a ſubordinate ſtate. Viſit all the madhouſes, and you will find the inſane inhabitants either princes, kings, emperors, or gods. If they are in love, it is with a princeſs or a queen. In general, they ſpeak of nothing but grandeur; a ſenſible proof that vanity, above every thing, reigns in the human mind.

A great man, who has not his inferiors at command, has but a ſhallow capacity, conſidering their inclination to admire men in elevated ſtations, and the impreſſion which their moſt trifling expreſſions make upon them.

We are inſuſceptible of virtue, unleſs there be ſomething we value more than life. Let this be conſidered by thoſe who approve of throwing off what they are pleaſed to term, religious ſhackles or prejudices.

It is not for his own pleaſure that a rich man gives great ſuppers, that another aſſembles half the town at his balls, or has pictures by eminent maſters, or a cloſet of natural hiſtory; it is to add to his conſequence. The houſe and gardens form for the proprietor a ſituation in the world; he poſſeſſes them as he would perform the functions of a place at court, or thoſe of a great employment in the city.

It is moſt diſagreeable to be reproached with that, which makes others withdraw themſelves from our ſociety. A man may pardon the greateſt injury, but he will not forgive another, who reproaches him with being tireſome.

The prejudice of birth is one of the moſt predominant in the minds of men of every claſs and country. The caſts of the Indians do not aſſociate with their inferiors, and there are ſeveral grooms to Nabobs, who would think themſelves diſhonoured by eating with their maſters.—The advantage of high birth, chiefly conſiſts in making merit leſs neceſſary.

None but men of middling rank are capable of being diſhonoured. Obſcure names, when they become famous by crimes or ſcandal, call nothing to recollection but the event which covered them with ſhame. They are like trees which are judged of by the only fruit they have ever borne.

There are happy days, but no happy lives; this would be an enchanting dream,

dream, without once wakening to ſorrow.

He whoſe paſſions are mild, whoſe fortune is equal to his deſires and ſituation, who paſſes his life with his relations and friends, and dies in their arms without remorſe, fear or pain, is a happy man.

Time ſeems to be abridged by the epochas and diviſions, which give us an idea of it. The uniformity of ſituations, when they are not too much agitated, increaſes the idea of its duration. The traveller, who croſſes great plains, is more impatient than he would be upon a road varied by woods, mountains, and habitations.

When love and its pleaſures have entirely filled up the ſpace of youth, the following epocha of life has neither taſtes nor deſires. The enervated mind has no longer ſufficient ſtrength to enjoy pleaſures, diſengaged from the ſenſes; it remained without food and exerciſe, and the ſenſes are now entirely benumbed.

There are people, whoſe converſation or preſence always excites languor in others; theſe are men who, by the void in their minds, communicate wearineſs; or who are fatiguing by a ſuperabundance of unintereſting converſation; thus want and ſuperfluity are ſources of languor.

The tears we ſtrive to hide are the moſt affecting. The violence we thus do ourſelves ſhows both courage and ſenſibility.—In like manner, laughter is never more ſtrong than when we endeavour to ſuppreſs it. Every oppoſition ſtrengthens deſire: the wave which meets with obſtacles foams, becomes impetuous, or riſes into the air.

Liberty was given to man that he might have a claim to the merit of virtue.

A portion of pride ſufficient to remind us of what we owe to ourſelves and ſenſibility enough to prevent our forgetting what we owe to others, will produce much of what is called virtue in modern times.

Friendſhip is to love, what an engraving is to a painting.

There is a degree of diſorderly conduct and wickedneſs in gallantry, which can no where be met with but in the perſon of a woman of elevated rank. She knows that audacity aſtoniſhes, and that there is nothing which a woman of ſuperior underſtanding, added to high birth, may not riſk. But woe to the woman in the *city*, who ſhould wiſh to follow her ſteps; ſhe would fall into the mire of public contempt.

Intereſt contains ſo active and ſubtle a poiſon, that affection, the moment it is joined to it, is corrupted, and at length extinguiſhed.

A man paſſes all his time with his miſtreſs—his wife dies; he is looked upon as happy in being at liberty to purſue his inclination, and having the power of uniting himſelf to the object of his affections. But if this man who is accuſtomed to go from home every day at four o'clock, ſhould marry his miſtreſs, where then will he have to go at that hour?

What is called *bon ton* is eſſential to men of mediocrity, but a man of ſuperior underſtanding, cannot ſubject himſelf to the laws it impoſes. It would be neceſſary to ſacrifice his ideas or to weaken them. The dictionary of *bon ton* is not extenſive enough for him. A certain diſcernment is neceſſary to diſcover ridicule, and to expreſs it in an agreeable manner. But the ſuperior wit finds nothing ridiculous; he ſees nothing particular, and manners, cuſtoms, and the oddities of men and nations appear him to be in the nature of things. What appears extraordinary to others is familiar to a man of this deſcription; his aſtoniſhment is at an end. It is upon the ſame principle, that a man is not affected by that which ſurpriſes a child, or makes him laugh.

In conſidering the impatient ardour of the paſſions in youth, we might be led to ſuppoſe that life was to laſt but for a day; but the precautions of the aged ſeem to be ſuch as if it was eternal. This happens becauſe deſire is extreme in youth, and fear, without bounds, in age. For theſe reaſons, ſtrong minds, and youth, which is the age of ſtrength, are eager to enjoy, and unacquainted with avarice.

C. C. C.

Account

Account of a Dissertation on the Equality of Mankind, and on the Rights and Duties thence resulting. By Peter Paulus, LL. D. and Member of several Philosophical and Literary Societies.

IN his inquiry into the equality of mankind in a state of nature, Dr. Paulus lays great stress on their common relation to the Supreme Being, who is said in scripture to be no respecter of persons, and on one moral law being equally obligatory on every individual. He also maintains that the establishment of moral equality is one great object of the gospel; that all the precepts of Christ tend to this end; and that every circumstance of his birth, life, and conduct seems intended to annihilate the insolent claims of those, who, on account of temporal advantages, imagine themselves superior to their fellow mortals. Some of these arguments are adduced and applied with judgment: but this praise is very far from being due to all.

In order to ascertain what alteration takes place in the circumstances of mankind, on their becoming members of civil society, Dr. Paulus observes that it is necessary to inquire into the grand original object of the political union; this, he says, is to maintain, against all violence and oppression, that moral equality which had subsisted in a state of nature. Civil society, therefore, does not necessarily make any one member of the community either the master or the slave of his fellow citizens, but only confirms the relations which already existed. Instead of thus elevating some above others, it places all on an equal footing, by making all equally subject to the common authority of the laws, which constitute the will of the community. This, our author adds, is the only object of society which concurs with the precepts and design of our Saviour and his apostles. Christianity is founded on universal brotherly love, and commands men to love their fellow mortals as themselves; that is, to live as in a fraternal society of equals.

That men were first prompted to enter into civil society in order to secure their natural rights, is a principle laid down by all the best writers on government: it has been asserted not only by those whom, though they were once revered by Englishmen, it is now the fashion to censure on account of a supposed tendency to republicanism, which is now made the political bugbear of the age, but also by those who cannot be suspected of any such partiality. Among these, our author mentions the late king of Prussia as holding a distinguished rank. His majesty accuses Machiavel of not having properly attended to the origin of government, and to the reasons which induced free men to submit to rulers; and he expresses himself in a manner not less friendly to liberty and the rights of mankind, than our most admired writers on the subject. He says that government derives its origin from the people; that it was instituted for their advantage, and not particularly for that of the prince; and he tells monarchs that, if they traced their power back to its true source, and considered its original object, they would see that their elevation to the high rank, by which they are so intoxicated, was no other than the work of the people. It is remarkable that his Prussian majesty, in his essay on forms of government and the duty of kings, makes use of the very expression which drew down so much censure on the late Dr. *Price*, as he affirms that the supreme ruler is "*the first servant of the state.*"

In his enumeration of the rights of man as a member of civil society, Dr. Paulus will be thought by many even of the best friends of liberty to reason too indefinitely, and not sufficiently to consider the different forms of political constitution, which may be chosen by a people, and under which they may continue to enjoy freedom. The right of every independent man to a share in the legislature, either personally, or by a representative, toward whose election he has the right of voting, we readily acknowlege; because we consider a fair representation of the people, for the purpose of making laws and levying taxes, as essential to a free government: but we cannot think it universally true that every member of the community

ought to be eligible to all offices of truſt and power. This is indeed the caſe in pure democracies: but circumſtances may occur, which may render this mode of government leſs adapted to promote the welfare of the community than the more mixed forms, or than limited monarchy; and, in the latter caſe, it may be the will as well as the intereſt of the people, that the office of king ſhould be hereditary, and confined to a certain order of ſucceſſion eſtabliſhed by the laws. We are well aware of the ſpecious ridicule to which the idea of an hereditary governor may be expoſed; we acknowlege that the ſon of a wiſe and good prince may be a weak or a bad king: but even to his government, provided it be properly limited, we had rather ſubmit, than ſee our country expoſed to the violence of contending factions, and perhaps to the horrors of civil war, or to the inſolent interference of foreign deſpots, whenever the throne is vacant; ſuch would probably be the conſequences of an interregnum, if the crown of Great Britain were elective; in which caſe it is probable that the king of Pruſſia and his righteous aſſociates might do us the favour to *promote the good* of England, in the ſame way in which they have promoted that of Poland. We know that the power of moſt monarchs is founded on ſucceſsful uſurpation, ſupported by violence: but the conſtitutional prerogatives of a king of England are derived from the will of the community, and are freely ceded to him under thoſe equitable conditions to which he is bound by his coronation oath.

We are much pleaſed with the manner in which Dr. Paulus connects the duties of man with his rights, and with the ſpirit with which he enforces thoſe which are incumbent on every member of civil ſociety. He here ſhews himſelf to be no leſs the friend of ſocial order than of liberty. When ſpeaking of the obligation to abſtain from perſonal revenge, and to refer all our differences to the deciſion of the laws, he introduces ſome excellent obſervations on the abſurd cuſtom of duelling, which well deſerve the attention of thoſe who think themſelves warranted, on every trifling occaſion, to have recourſe to the ſword and the piſtol, in order to prove themſelves men of honour.

After dwelling on the rights and duties of men, in civil ſociety, reſulting from their equality, the author takes notice of the objections which have been made to this principle. Some have aſſerted that no civil ſociety founded on it could flouriſh; and that, where all the members of the community had equal rights, there would not be proper ſubordination, but that the ſtate would be torn by diſſenſions, of which anarchy and civil war would be the deplorable conſequences. In anſwer, Dr. Paulus ſhews that the principle of equality, when properly underſtood, is ſo far from tending to produce ſedition and anarchy, that it neceſſarily ſuppoſes a ſtrict obedience to the laws, and to that authority which is founded on them. Equality of rights is inſeparably connected with equality of moral obligation; and the former cannot be maintained without the obſervance of the latter. In every conſtitution, they who are inveſted with the executive part of government muſt be armed with a power ſufficient to compel every individual to obey the laws, which conſtitute the will of the community; and our author obſerves that men will more cheerfully and readily obey laws which they, by their repreſentatives, have concurred in making, than thoſe which are impoſed on them by others, and in the eſtabliſhment of which they have had no concern:—but all this, it will be ſaid, is mere theory; and the late conſtitution of France will be urged as an inſtance of the little ſtability that can be expected in a government founded on this principle. In reply to this objection, it is obſerved that the fault lay not in the foundation, but in the ſuperſtructure: the inſtability was not the neceſſary conſequence of the principle of equality, but aroſe from the vices of the conſtitution built on it, by which the executive power had not ſufficient authority to enforce obedience to the laws, and to ſecure the regular diſtribution of juſtice. To form a free conſtitution that ſhall be exempt from theſe defects, in which the order and harmony of the

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whole community shall be not less securely maintained than the rights of every member of it, is certainly a very difficult work: but our author justly observes that there is no reason to suppose it impossible, and that a particular and unprejudiced investigation of this subject would be of great utility to mankind: on this we shall venture to make one remark, of which the advocates for popular governments ought never to lose sight; and which is, that the authority of the laws ought to be absolute and inflexible in proportion to the freedom of the constitution. In a monarchy, the severity of the law which, in some particular instances, happens to fall hard on an individual, may be mitigated, and mercy extended to the offender: but, in a democracy, this would be attended with danger, and no particular circumstance ought to prevent the rigorous execution of whatever sentence the law may prescribe. As equality is the foundation of a democracy, this principle must be carefully preserved; and every thing, which might diminish its force, ought to be strictly prohibited. Hence many things become of sufficient importance to be regulated by the laws which, to a superficial observer, may appear of little consequence, and concerning which, in a monarchy, men may be left to the guidance of their own discretion. If, therefore, it be acknowleged that a well constituted democracy is admirably adapted to preserve political as well as civil liberty, it is not less true that, in order to the security of such a constitution, individuals must submit to a greater number of restraints, than under any other form of government.

Others have objected to the principle of equality, that the impracticability of a constitution, founded on it, is evident from a survey of all the present governments of Europe; from which it may be concluded that the experience of mankind has induced them to prefer a more absolute and indefinite authority in their rulers than this principle will admit. Dr. Paulus, in reply, observes that the objectors have not distinguished between the nature of government and those abuses which have been introduced into it by successful usurpation, by violence, and by corruption. He paints, in strong colours, the misery that results to the people from the arbitrary power of the monarch, and particularly dwells on the calamities of war, in which mankind are often involved to gratify the ambition, the rapacity, or the pride of princes. He mentions, with that indignation which a humane heart must feel, the dreadful slaughter at Oczakow and Ismael, in the late war between the Russians and Turks; at the former of which places thirteen thousand, and, at the latter, thirty thousand, were killed, and the sea and rivers were literally stained with human blood. Hence he inveighs against the folly of mankind in entrusting the power of making war to a single person, or even to a few of their fellow-creatures. This is indeed an evil which every friend to mankind must deplore, and which, as Englishmen, when we reflect on the late war with America and the present with France, we have ample cause to lament: but we do not see how it can be remedied; because every thing that requires immediate exertion must, in every government, be entrusted to the executive power; and when this power has provoked hostilities, however unjustifiable they may be, the people are under the necessity of pursuing a war with vigour in their own defence. If indeed there were always spirit and integrity sufficient, in the representatives of the people, to impeach those servants of the crown who involve their country in an unjust or an unnecessary war, we might hope to see a greater regard paid to the interests of the nation, as well as to those of humanity; and future ministers would tremble at the thought of sacrificing both to their own pride and obstinacy.

Our author very justly vindicates the French declaration of rights from that absurd misrepresentation of it, which supposes equality of right to imply equality of possessions; nothing can be more wrong than this conclusion, which the enemies of liberty are so eager to impose on mankind: but, at the same time, it must be acknowleged that those countries will on the whole be the most prosperous, and their inhabitants the most free, in which there is least ine-

quality with reſpect to riches, and in which the paths that lead to moderate wealth are open to all without diſtinction.

In diſcuſſing the merits of the French Revolution of 1789, Dr. Paulus very judiciouſly refutes *Necker* and *Burke*. He aſcribes the events of the 5th of October, and all the tragical ſcenes that have ſince taken place in Paris, to the want of cordiality and ſincerity on the part of the unfortunate king and his miniſters. The anſwer which the monarch gave by their advice, when the decree of the 4th of Auguſt was preſented to him for his ſanction, is here conſidered as the original ſource of all the calamities that afterward befel him. In this anſwer, inſtead of explaining and defining, he evaded entering into any diſcuſſion of, the principle on which the conſtitution was to be founded; whence his ſubſequent acquieſcence in a ſuperſtructure, of which he had not admitted the baſis, became an inconſiſtency that expoſed his ſincerity to diſtruſt. Theſe ſuſpicions were ſtrengthened by his previous attempt to eſcape out of the kingdom, and were afterward kept alive by the conduct of the emigrated princes, and of the emperor and the king of Pruſſia; who, in all their appeals to the public, repreſented him as acting merely by compulſion, and without any intention to fulfil theſe forced engagements. Such jealouſies might have produced formidable effects in any free country; and, when we conſider how much the indignation and terror of the French were excited by the interference of foreign powers, the fatal conſequences that enſued may excite our ſorrow and awaken our compaſſion, but very little knowlege of mankind will be ſufficient to prevent our being ſurpriſed that a nation, thus alarmed, ſhould become the dupe of a party, who pleaded neceſſity and a regard for the liberty of their country as the motive of their conduct.

In his laſt chapter, Dr. Paulus inſiſts on ſome conſequences, reſulting from the equality of rights and duties, which relate to the tranſactions of independent ſtates with each other. He maintains that, as a dwarf is as much a man as a giant, ſo the ſmalleſt independent republic is equal, with reſpect to its rights, to the moſt powerful monarchy. Hence he deprecates all pretences to precedence among ſovereign ſtates, and denies the excluſive right of any to the navigation or uſe of the ſea, or of ſuch rivers and waters as are not entirely incloſed by its own territory. He alſo maintains that no ſovereign ſtate can juſtly forbid the commercial intercourſe of its ſubjects with thoſe of other ſtates, except in thoſe caſes in which its abſolute ſafety is immediately concerned. He expoſes the abſurdity of every excluſive claim laid to newly-diſcovered countries, except ſuch as is founded on peopling and cultivating thoſe which were uninhabited; and even then the claim can extend no farther than the part occupied by the coloniſts. On all theſe ſubjects it muſt be acknowleged that he is juſt and impartial in his reaſoning; and it is greatly to be lamented that politicians are ſo much more attentive to expedience than to juſtice in their tranſactions:—but as long as an appeal to the ſword is the only mean by which nations can decide their claims, we can ſcarcely hope that impartial juſtice will be the rule of their dealings with one another. The miniſter of each ſtate looks on thoſe of other countries as men who are endeavouring to take all poſſible advantage of any inadvertence into which he may be betrayed, in order to extort all that they can; he therefore thinks himſelf juſtified in adopting a ſimilar conduct, and tries to advance the immediate intereſts of his principals, by practiſing the like diſingenuous arts.

On the whole, we muſt acknowledge that an attentive peruſal of this work gives us a high opinion of its author, as a friend of religion and virtue, as well as of liberty; and we hope that it may be the means of correcting thoſe vulgar errors concerning equality, which the enemies of freedom are ſo induſtrious in propagating. We know that there are ſome who affect to deteſt the very term, and who wiſh to eradicate every notion of equality from among mankind: but the attempt is not leſs impotent and impolitic than it is unjuſt.

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We acknowledge that much evil may result to society from its being wrongly understood: but the only way of preventing these ill consequences is fully to explain, and accurately to define, a principle, the truth of which is too palpable to be denied. Indeed the principle itself is by no means new, but has long been prevalent even among those who now profess to be its greatest enemies. The same pride which leads men to refuse the claim of equality to those on whom they look down as inferiors, induces them to arrogate it with regard to others, whom they must acknowledge as their superiors in external circumstances and station. Is a commoner insulted by a peer, or one officer by another who is higher in rank? he thinks himself entitled to demand personal satisfaction, and maintains that, *as gentlemen*, they are equal. If, then, the factitious title of gentleman can confer equality on all on whom fashion bestows that title, shall an equality of right be denied to those who bear the appellation of *man*, and whom the universal Father has endued with the same nature, considers as equally the objects of his providential care, and has destined to the same perfection of virtue and happiness? This would be to prefer the vile usurpations and arbitrary distinctions of earthly tyrants, to the wise and benevolent institutions of the God of all nature, in whose sight wealth and rank "are vanity and a lie," and with whom moral worth is the only title to superiority.

Account of Bilidulgerid, in Africa. By M. Saugnier.

BILIDULGERID, in the part I have travelled through, is inhabited by a people known by the general name of Monselemines. They differ in their religion and customs from the Moors their neighbours, and from the Mongearts, inhabitants of the desart. This variation however is hardly perceptible. The parts that confine on Morocco follow the customs of that empire, unless in one singular particular. They that are in the vicinity of the desart, and do not turn their attention to trade, adhere more closely to the prejudices of their nation.

This Arabian tribe, no doubt, derives its origin and name from the sectaries of Moseilama, a contemporary of the great prophet. They have the same love of liberty as the ancient Arabs, and follow, in all respects, the customs of the people who lived in the remoter ages. Like the Mahometans they have the greatest respect for the prophet, but they are far from believing that he was infallible; that his descendants are all inspired by God, that their will is a law, and that it is impossible to be a good Mahometan, without giving faith to such ideas.

This nation, in the part washed by the Atlantic, occupies a space of land of various qualities, from about twenty leagues from St. Croix de Barbarie to the distance of about thirty beyond Cape Non. The limits of their possessions are indicated by lofty columns, placed at distant intervals towards the desart. This they have done as they have thought fit, the inhabitants of the desart never interfering, and even inhabiting unmolested by any body, the spots where the pillars stand.

Some people pretend that these columns were erected by the emperors of Morocco, to mark the bounds of their empire. However it may be, the country is inhabited by an assemblage of true Arabs, descended from the ancient Arabs, and of fugitive Moors from the empire of Morocco.

The government is republican. They defend themselves with great courage, choose new chiefs every year, and pass for invincible in the eyes of the Moors, as well on account of the difficulty of penetrating into their country, surrounded as it is on every side by steep and arid mountains, as from their courage, and the obstinate resistance they oppose to the efforts of their enemies.

This nation, more civilized than those that inhabit the desart, is not for ever wandering from region to region; but is settled in towns that are all situated upon the declivity of hills. Their houses are built of stone and earth, and are of a construction similar to those of the Moors; they are low,

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and covered with terraſſes that are laid ſloping to carry off the water. The heavy rains that prevail in this country for three months of the year, are greatly prejudicial to this kind of habitation; inſomuch that they are obliged to change their abode every fifteen or twenty years. The towns are inhabited by the artiſans, and opulent people, as well as by the Jews, who are occupied in a variety of work. The Monſelemines have moſques, where they aſſemble to pray on Fridays. Although that day is conſecrated to religious duties, it does not prevent them from working: it is the day of their principal market, when the country people, and Arabs of the deſart repair thither to trade. There are public ſquares for the ſale of merchandiſe, the inhabitants alone having little ſhops to expoſe their goods to ſale. As to the others, they merely ſpread them out upon the ſquare. If any diſputes ariſe the old men judge without appeal, and the ſuit is immediately terminated.

More induſtrious and more laborious than their neighbours, the Monſelemine nation cultivates the earth. The chief of each family having choſen the ground that appears to him moſt proper, they ſlightly turn up the ſurface of the earth with a kind of crook, and then throw in the ſeed. They take care to ſurround the field with buſhes, to indicate the ſpot that has been cultivated, and to keep off the cattle of the wandering Arabs. The crop is ripe three months after the ſowing of the ſeed, generally at the end of March: they cut their corn at about ſix inches from the ear, and make it up into little bundles. Every body then goes to work from morning till night without intermiſſion. The corn is brought before the tent, threſhed, winnowed, and then laid by. As ſoon as the harveſt is over they ſet fire to the ſtraw that remains ſtanding, and abandon the field for two or three years.

Their method of keeping their corn is exactly ſimilar to that of the inhabitants of Barbary. They make for the purpoſe a great hole in the earth, in the form of the fruſtrum of a cone, and fill it with wood, to which they ſet fire: this operation over, they clean the cavity, and there depoſit the half-winnowed corn: they then take ſtrong planks, lay them cloſe to one another, and cover the whole with earth. By theſe means, it is rendered impoſſible to cut off their ſupplies in time of war, the enemy marching, without knowing it, over heaps of corn.

The inhabitants of the plains make a ſtop in ſeed-time, and return at the moment of the harveſt: every one knows the ſpot he has cultivated, and reaps the crop. When they have done ſo, they lay by the corn in the manner I have juſt mentioned, and go wandering about in all directions with their cattle, only taking with them what is abſolutely neceſſary. When they find that their ſtock is nearly exhauſted, ſeveral individuals well armed, ſet off with their camels, and go to the magazines of the horde to fetch a ſupply. Every one ſhares in proportion to the number of men he employed in labouring for the common advantage.

The laws of hoſpitality are generally obſerved among the wandering tribes; and here, as in the deſart, the traveller pays nothing for his entertainment. It is not the ſame in the towns, where the multitude of ſtrangers that frequent the market, oblige them to exact payment, otherwiſe the inhabitants would ever be poor, ſince on market days, and thoſe of the aſſembly, they would have an infinite number of aliens to ſupport. As to lodgings, the country Arabs always ſleep upon the terraſſes in the open air, the inhabitants permitting none but their kinſmen, friends, or chiefs of hordes to enter their houſes. The negro ſlaves belonging to them carefully examine the number of perſons that aſk for victuals, give it them at the door according to their number, adding a ſufficient quantity of water to quench their thirſt. There is a ſeparate yard for the horſes; but unleſs their maſters ſtay all night, nothing is given them. When they do, three pounds of barley are diſtributed to each horſe at the cloſe of the day, and that is all they get for four and twenty hours. I have dwelt a little upon this article, becauſe when I

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lived with Hali Laze, to whoſe houſe the country people uſed to come for food, I have ſeen all this put in practice ſeveral times.

Thoſe who reſide in the towns have in general no cattle, but profeſs ſome trade, ſuch as weaver, ſhoemaker, goldſmith, potter, &c. The principal ones, however, do not apply to any of theſe occupations. They have a great many cows, horſes, camels, ſheep, goats, and poultry of every kind; their negroes have a great deal of work to do, and are harſhly treated. Thoſe who tend the cattle are undoubtedly the moſt happy; but thoſe who are kept at home for domeſtic occupations, have much to undergo. They muſt take care of the repairs of the building, ſupply the houſe with wood and water, and prepare the corn. The negreſſes reduce it to meal, making uſe for that purpoſe of ſtone mills, like thoſe that are uſed in France to grind pepper and muſtard: they alſo dreſs the victuals, and are inceſſantly employed from morning to night. The negro ſhepherd on the contrary, knows no care but that of his flock; always finds his repaſt ready; is well clothed and well armed; and has a little retreat for himſelf and his family.

This country is well peopled, and would be more ſo, but for the continual wars its inhabitants are obliged to ſupport againſt the emperor of Morocco. It is improperly ſaid that this nation is in rebellion againſt him; for they never were his ſubjects. When a Mooriſh army takes the field, the inhabitants of Bilidulgerid, who have many of their countrymen ſettled in the Morocco dominions, are ſpeedily appriſed, hold themſelves prepared; and all the inhabitants of the country cantons being well mounted, they compoſe formidable bodies of cavalry, take poſſeſſion of the paſſes, and maſſacre without mercy any troops that may have the temerity to adventure within them. No priſoners are made on either ſide. The women and the ſlaves, eſcorted by a ſufficient number of warriors for their defence, quit their habitations, and retire to the interior parts of the country, ſometimes they even retire to the deſart. The liberty theſe people enjoy encourages them to ſupport the greateſt fatigue. They conſider it as the firſt of all bleſſings, and fight to the laſt extremity to preſerve their rights. The trade, between Barbary and Zaara, of which they have the excluſive poſſeſſion, renders them opulent, and accordingly they are ſure to hold out, and terminate the war to advantage. As this country is the retreat of the rich Moors, who wiſh to withdraw from the emperor's tyrannic ſway, they have always many among them, who being acquainted with the Mooriſh cuſtoms, enables them by their councils to guard againſt all ſurpriſe. There is no danger of their being betrayed by theſe fugitives, who have been plundered and condemned to death in their own country. So far from it, they always fight with obſtinacy; and rather chooſe to die with their arms in their hands, than to let themſelves be taken, and executed before the eyes of the whole nation.

The Monſelemine, richer than any of the people that inhabit the provinces ſubject to the dominion of Morocco, is always well clothed and well armed. He pays no tribute, enjoys the fruit of his labour, and of his commerce; and having nothing to contribute to the charges of the ſtate, every thing he can acquire is his own. There is this difference between the fugitive Moors and the natives, that the latter are always armed, whether reſiding in the country, reſorting to the markets, preſent at the aſſemblies of the nation, or paying viſits: the fugitive Moors, on the contrary, even be they princes, never bear arms but in the country, when they take the field.

The women are no more ſlaves than thoſe of Zaara. Thoſe of the towns remain in a kind of ſeraglio, each man having as many as he can maintain. The moſt reſpected are they who bear male children. Although their apartment is diſtinct from that of the men, admittance to them is not forbidden. They are well clothed, and the huſband not being jealous, they may be ſeen, may walk about the town and viſit their friends. When they go out they have a veil, which covers them entirely,

but

but which is uſeleſs, nay, even inconvenient, ſince they take it off, whenever they meet any one to whom they wiſh to ſpeak. They are more humane than thoſe of Zaara, and are not like them for ever liable to blows. They think it is poſſible for their huſbands to love them, without giving them ſuch ſolid proofs of their fondneſs. Their nails and face they paint with red and yellow, and ſtain the edges of the eye lids with black. When they paint only one ſide of their face, they have no communication with the men; a cuſtom that is common to all theſe nations, even to thoſe who inhabit the banks of the Niger.

[*To be continued.*]

Account of the Snakes of Carolina and Florida. From Bartram's Travels through North and South Carolina.

BUT let us again reſume the ſubject of the rattleſnake; a wonderful creature when we conſider his form, nature, and diſpoſition. It is certain that he is capable, by a puncture or ſcratch of one of his fangs, not only to kill the largeſt animal in America, and that in a few minutes time, but to turn the whole body into corruption. But ſuch is the nature of this dreadful reptile that he cannot run or creep faſter than a man or a child can walk, and he is never known to ſtrike till he is firſt aſſaulted, or fears himſelf in danger, and even then always gives the earlieſt warning by the rattles at the extremity of the tail. I have in the courſe of my travels in the ſouthern ſtates (where they are largeſt, moſt numerous, and ſuppoſed to be the moſt venomous and vindictive) ſtept unknowingly ſo cloſe as almoſt to touch one of them with my feet; and when I perceived him he was already drawn up in circular coils ready for a blow. But however incredible it may appear, the generous, I may ſay magnanimous creature, lay as ſtill and motionleſs as if inanimate; his head crouched in, his eyes almoſt ſhut. I precipitately withdrew, unleſs when I have been ſo ſhocked with ſurprize and horror as to be in a manner rivetted to the ſpot, for a ſhort time not having ſtrength to go away; when he often ſlowly extends himſelf, and quietly moves off in a direct line, unleſs purſued, when he erects his tail as far as the rattles extend, and gives the warning alarm by intervals. But if you purſue and overtake him with a ſhew of enmity, he inſtantly throws himſelf into the ſpiral coil; his tail, by the rapidity of its motion, appears like a vapour, making a quick tremulous ſound; his whole body ſwells through rage, continually riſing and falling as a bellows; his beautiful party coloured ſkin becomes ſpeckled and rough by dilatation; his head and neck are flattened, his cheeks ſwollen and his lips conſtricted, diſcovering his mortal fangs; his eyes red as burning coals, and his brandiſhing forked tongue of the colour of the hotteſt flame, continually menaces death and deſtruction, yet never ſtrikes unleſs ſure of his mark

The rattleſnake is the largeſt ſerpent yet known to exiſt in North America. I have heard of their having been ſeen formerly, at the firſt ſettling of Georgia, ſeven, eight, and even ten feet in length, and ſix or eight inches in diameter; but there are none of that ſize now to be ſeen; yet I have ſeen them above ſix feet in length, and above ſix inches in thickneſs, or as large as a man's leg; and their general ſize is four, five and ſix feet in length. They are ſuppoſed to have the power of faſcination in an eminent degree, ſo as to enthral their prey. It is generally believed that they charm birds, rabbits, ſquirrels, and other animals, and by ſtedfaſtly looking at them poſſeſs them with infatuation: be the cauſe what it may, the miſerable creatures undoubtedly ſtrive by every poſſible means to eſcape; but alas! their endeavours are in vain; they at laſt loſe the powers of reſiſtance, flutter or move ſlowly, but reluctantly, towards the yawning jaws of their devourers, and creep into their mouths, or lie down and ſuffer themſelves to be taken and ſwallowed.

Since, within the circle of my acquaintance, I am known to be an advocate or vindicator of the benevolent and peaceable diſpoſition of animal creation in general, not only towards mankind, whom they ſeem to venerate, but

but alſo towards one another, except where hunger, or the rational and neceſſary provocations of the ſenſual appetite interfere, I ſhall mention a few inſtances, among many, which I have had an opportunity of remarking during my travels, particularly with regard to the animal I have been treating of. I ſhall ſtrictly confine myſelf to facts.

When on the ſea-coaſt of Georgia, I conſented, with a few friends, to make a party of amuſement at fiſhing and fowling on Sapello, one of the ſea coaſt iſlands. We accordingly deſcended the Alatamaha, croſſed the Sound, and landed on the north end of the iſland, near the inlet; fixing our encampment at a pleaſant ſituation, under the ſhade of a grove of live oaks and laurels, on the high banks of a creek which we aſcended, winding through a ſmall marſh, which had its ſource from a ſwamp and ſavanna in the iſland: our ſituation elevated and open, commanded a comprehenſive landſcape; the great ocean, the foaming ſurf breaking on the ſandy beach the ſnowy breakers on the bar, and endleſs chain of iſlands, checquered ſound, and high continent, all appearing before us. The diverting toils of the day were not fruitleſs, affording us opportunities of furniſhing ourſelves plentifully with a variety of game, fiſh, and oyſters for our ſupper.

About two hundred yards from our camp was a cool ſpring, amidſt a grove of the odoriferous myrica: the winding path to this ſalubrious fountain led through a graſſy ſavanna. I viſited the ſpring ſeveral times in the night, but little did I know, or any of my careleſs drowſy companions, that every time we viſited the fountain we were in imminent danger, as I am going to relate. Early in the morning, excited by unconquerable thirſt, I aroſe and went to the ſpring; and being thoughtleſs of harm or danger, nearly half paſſed the dewy vale, along the ſerpentine foot-path, my haſty ſteps were ſuddenly ſtopped by the ſight of a hideous ſerpent; the formidable rattleſnake, in a high ſpiral coil, forming a circular round, half the height of my knees, within ſix inches of the narrow path. As ſoon as I recovered my ſenſes and ſtrength from ſo ſudden a ſurprize, I ſtarted back out of his reach, where I ſtood to view him: he lay quiet whilſt I ſurveyed him, appearing no way ſurpriſed or diſturbed, but kept his half-ſhut eyes fixed on me. My imagination and ſpirits were in a tumult, almoſt equally divided between thankſgiving to the ſupreme Creator and preſerver, and the dignified nature of the generous though terrible creature, who had ſuffered us all to paſs many times by him during the night, without injuring us in the leaſt, although we muſt have touched him, or our ſteps have been guided from him by a ſupreme guardian ſpirit. I haſtened back to acquaint my aſſociates, but with a determination to protect the life of the generous ſerpent. I preſently brought my companions to the place, who were beyond expreſſion ſurpriſed and terrified at the ſight of the animal, and in a moment acknowledged their eſcape from deſtruction to be miraculous: and I am proud to aſſert, that all of us except one perſon agreed to let him lie undiſturbed, and that perſon at length was prevailed upon to ſuffer him to eſcape.

Again, when in my youth attending my father on a journey to the Catſkill mountains in the government of New York, having nearly aſcended the peak of Gilead, being youthful and vigorous in the purſuit of botanical and novel objects, I had gained the ſummit of a ſteep rocky precipice, a-head of our guide; when juſt ending a ſhady vale, I ſaw at the root of a ſmall ſhrub, a ſingular and beautiful appearance, which I remember to have inſtantly apprehended to be a large kind of fungus, which we call Jew's ears, and was juſt drawing back my foot to kick it over, when at the inſtant, my father being near, cried out—a rattleſnake, my ſon!—and jerked me back, which probably ſaved my life. I had never before ſeen one. This was of the kind which our guide called a yellow one; it was very beautifully ſpeckled and clouded. My father pleaded for his life; but our guide was inexorable, ſaying

ſaying he never ſpared the life of a rattleſnake, and killed him: my father took his ſkin and fangs.

Some years after this, when again in company with my father on a journey into Eaſt Florida, on the banks of St. John, at Fort Picoleta, attending the congreſs at a treaty between that government and the Creek nation, for obtaining a territory from that people to annex to the new government, after the Indians, and a detachment from the government of St. Auguſtine, had arrived and encamped ſeparately near the fort, ſome days elapſed before the buſineſs of the treaty came on, waiting the arrival of a veſſel from St. Auguſtine, on board of which were the preſents for the Indians, my father employed this time of leiſure in little excurſions round the fort; and one morning, being the day the treaty commenced, I attended him on a botanical excurſion. Some time after we had been rambling in a ſwamp, about a quarter of a mile from the camp, I being ahead a few paces, my father bade me obſerve the rattleſnake juſt at my feet. I ſtopped, and ſaw the monſter formed in a high ſpiral coil, not half his length from my feet: another ſtep forward would have put my life in his power, as I muſt have touched, if not ſtumbled over him. The fright and perturbation of my ſpirits at once excited reſentment; at that time I was entirely inſenſible to gratitude or mercy. I inſtantly cut off a little ſapling and ſoon diſpatched him. This ſerpent was about ſix feet in length, and as thick as an ordinary man's leg. The rencounter deterred us from proceeding on our reſearches for that day. So I cut off a long tough withy or vine, which faſtening round the neck of the ſlain ſerpent, I dragged him after me, his ſcaly body ſounding over the ground; and entering the camp with him in triumph, was ſoon ſurrounded by the amazed multitude, both Indians and my countrymen. The adventure ſoon reached the ears of the commander, who ſent an officer to requeſt, that if the ſnake had not bit himſelf, he might have him ſerved up for his dinner. I readily delivered up the body of the ſnake to the cooks, and being that day invited to the governor's table, ſaw the ſnake ſerved up in ſeveral diſhes; governor Grant being fond of the fleſh of the rattleſnake. I taſted of it, but could not ſwallow it. I, however, was ſorry after killing the ſerpent, when coolly recollecting every circumſtance. He certainly had it in his power to kill me almoſt inſtantly, and I make no doubt but that he was conſcious of it. I promiſed myſelf that I would never again be acceſſary to the death of a rattleſnake, which promiſe I have invariably kept to. This dreaded animal is eaſily killed; a ſtick no thicker than a man's thumb is ſufficient to kill the largeſt at one ſtroke, if well directed, either on the head, or acroſs the back; nor can they make their eſcape by running off, nor indeed do they attempt it when attacked.

The moccaſin ſnake is a large and horrid ſerpent to all appearance, and there are very terrifying ſtories related of him by the inhabitants of the ſouthern ſtates, where they greatly abound, particularly in Eaſt Florida: that their bite is incurable, the fleſh for a conſiderable ſpace about the wound rotting to the bone, which then becomes carrious, and a general mortification enſues, which infallibly deſtroys the patient; the members of the body rotting and dying by piece-meal; and that there is no remedy to prevent a lingering miſerable death but by immediately cutting away the fleſh to the bone, for ſome diſtance round about the wound. In ſhape and proportion of parts they much reſemble the rattleſnake, and are marked and clouded much after the ſame manner, but the colours more dull and obſcure; and in their diſpoſition ſeem to agree with that dreadful reptile, being ſlow of progreſſion, and throwing themſelves in a ſpiral coil, ready for a blow when attacked. They have one peculiar quality, which is this; when diſcovered, and obſerving their enemy to take notice of them, after throwing themſelves in a coil, they gradually raiſe their upper mandible or jaw until it falls back nearly touching their neck, at the ſame time ſlowly vibrating their long purple forked tongue,

tongue, their crooked poiſonous fangs directed right at you, which gives the creature a moſt terrifying appearance. They are from three to four and even five feet in length, and as thick as a man's leg; they are not numerous, yet too common, and a ſufficient terror to the miſerable naked ſlaves, who are compelled to labour in the ſwamps and low lands where only they abound.

I never could find any that knew an inſtance of any perſon's loſing their life from them, only by hearſay. Yet I am convinced it is highly prudent for every perſon to be on their guard againſt them. They appear to be of the viper tribe, from their ſwelling their body and flattening their necks when provoked, and from their large poiſonous fangs.

Their head, mouth, and eyes are remarkably large.

There is another ſnake in Carolina and Florida, called the Moccaſin, very different from this; which is a very beautiful creature, and I believe not of a deſtructive or vindictive nature. Theſe when grown to their greateſt ſize are about five feet in length, and nearly as thick as a man's arm; their ſkin ſcaly, but ſmooth and ſhining, of a pale grey and ſky colour ground, uniformly marked with tranſverſe undulatary ringlets, or blotches of a deep nut-brown, edged with red or bright Spaniſh brown. They appear innocent, very active and ſwift, endeavouring to eſcape from one: they have no poiſonous fangs. Theſe are ſeen in high foreſt lands, about rotten logs or decayed fallen limbs of trees, and they harbour about old log buildings. They ſeem to be a ſpecies, if not the very ſame ſnake which, in Penſylvania and Virginia, is called the Wampom ſnake; but here, in warmer ſouthern climes, they grow to a much larger ſize, and from the ſame accident their colour may be more valuable and deeper. They are by the inhabitants aſſerted to be dangerouſly venemous, their bite incurable, &c. But as I could never learn an inſtance of their bite being mortal, or attended with any dangerous conſequence, and have had frequent opportunities of obſerving their nature and diſpoſition, I am inclined to pronounce them an innocent creature, with reſpect to mankind.

The baſtard rattle ſnake, by ſome called the ground rattleſnake, is a dangerous little creature: their bite is certainly mortal, if preſent medical relief is not adminiſtered; they ſeem to be much of the nature of the aſp or adder of the old world.

This little viper is in form and colour much like the rattle ſnake, but not ſo bright and uniformly marked. Their head is broader and ſhorter in proportion to the other parts of their body; their noſe prominent and turned upwards, their tail becomes ſuddenly ſmall from the vent to the extremity, which terminates with three minute articulations, reſembling rattles: when irritated they turn up their tail, which vibrates ſo quick as to appear like a miſt or vapour, but cauſes little or no ſound or noiſe; yet it is the common report of the inhabitants, that they cauſe that remarkable vehement noiſe, ſo frequently obſerved in foreſts in the heat of ſummer and autumn, very terrifying to ſtrangers, which is probably cauſed by a very ſable ſmall inſect of the genus cicadæ, or which are called the locuſts in America; yet it is poſſible I may be miſtaken in this conjecture. This dangerous viper is from eight to ten inches in length, and of proportionable thickneſs. They are ſpiteful ſnappiſh creatures, and throwing themſelves into a little coil, they ſwell and flatten themſelves, continually darting out their head, and they ſeem capable of ſpringing beyond their length. They ſeem deſtitute of the pacific diſpoſition and magnanimity of the rattle ſnake, and are unworthy of an alliance with him. No man ever ſaves their lives, yet they remain too numerous, even in the oldeſt ſettled parts of the country.

The green ſnake is a beautiful innocent creature: they are from two to three feet in length, but not ſo thick as a perſon's little finger, of the fineſt green colour. They are very abundant, commonly ſeen on the limbs of trees and ſhrubs: they prey upon inſects and reptiles, particularly the little queen chameleon, and the forked-tailed hawk

or kite feeds on both of them, ſnatching them on the boughs of trees.

The ribband ſnake is another very beautiful innocent ſerpent: they are eighteen inches in length, and about the thickneſs of a man's little finger; the head is very ſmall; the ground colour of a full clear vermilion, variegated with tranſverſe bars or zones of a dark brown, which people fancy repreſents a ribband wound round the creature's body. They are altogether inoffenſive to man, and are in a manner domeſtic, frequenting old wooden buildings, open grounds, and plantations.

The chicken-ſnake is a large ſtrong and ſwift ſerpent, ſix or ſeven feet in length, but ſcarcely ſo thick as a man's wriſt; they are of a cinereous earthy colour, and ſtriped longitudinally with broad lines or liſts, of a duſky or blackiſh colour. They are a domeſtic ſnake, haunting about houſes and plantations; and would be uſeful to man, if tamed and properly tutored, being great devourers of rats, but they are apt to diſturb hen-roofts and prey upon chickens. They are as innocent as a worm with reſpect to venom, are eaſily tamed, and ſoon become very familiar.

The pine or bull ſnake is very large and inoffenſive with reſpect to mankind, but devours ſquirrels, birds, rabbits, and every other creature it can take as food. They are the largeſt ſnake yet known in North America, except the rattle-ſnake, and perhaps exceed him in length; they are pied black and white; they utter a terrible loud hiſſing noiſe, ſounding very hollow and like diſtant thunder, when irritated, or at the time of incubation, when the males contend with each other for the deſired female. Theſe ſerpents are alſo called horn-ſnakes, from their tail terminating with a hard, horny ſpur, which they vibrate very quick when diſturbed, but they never attempt to ſtrike with it; they have dens in the earth, whither they retreat precipitately when apprehenſive of danger.

There are many other ſpecies of ſnakes in the regions of Florida and Carolina; as the water-ſnake, black-ſnake, garter-ſnake, copper-belly, ring-neck, and two or three varieties of vipers, beſides thoſe already noticed in my journal.

Story of Bhazmant: or the Confident Man.

(From the Arabian Tales: or a Continuation of the Arabian Nights Entertainments.)

KING Bhazmant being too much addicted to the pleaſures of the table, was one day indulging in intemperate feſtivity, when his vizier came to inform him that his capital was beſieged by enemies.

"Have not I good troops and able generals?" replied the king. "Let all be attended to, but come not hither to diſturb my pleaſures." "I ſhall obey, ſire," replied the vizier, but conſider that the Almighty diſpoſes of thrones, and that if you invoke not his aid, your power and wealth will be inſufficient to ſupport your's." Bhazmant, regardleſs of this advice, ſunk back into the arms of voluptuouſneſs, and, notwithſtanding the valour of his ſoldiers, was obliged to flee when he awaked out of his debauch, as the well directed force of the enemy had made them maſters of the city.

The fugitive prince took refuge with one of his allies, who being his father-in-law and friend, furniſhed him with a powerful army, with which he hoped ſoon to recover his dominions, and to to avenge himſelf on his enemies. Having full confidence in this aſſiſtance, he began his march at the head of theſe troops, and proceeded to the capital which he had loſt. But victory again declared in favour of the uſurper. His army was routed, and he owed his own ſafety to the ſwiftneſs and ſtrength of his horſe, who being purſued by the conqueror, plunged into an arm of the ſea on the way, and carried his rider ſafe to the oppoſite ſhore.

At no great diſtance ſtood a fortified city, named Keraſſin, then under the dominion of king Abadid. Bhazmant took the way to that city, and preſented himſelf at the houſe appropriated for the reception of poor ſtrangers. He learned that king Abadid had his reſidence in Medinet-Ilahid, the capital of the

the kingdom; he therefore continued his journey thither, arrived, and demanded an audience of the ſovereign, which was immediately granted him. His figure and aſpect prepoſſeſſed the monarch in his favour. He put various queſtions to him concerning his condition in life, his country, and the circumſtances which had brought him to Medinet Ilahid.

"I was an officer of diſtinction," anſwered he, "in the court of king Bhazmant, and was warmly attached to that prince. That unfortunate monarch has moſt probably fallen in his laſt battle with the uſurper of his dominions, to whom my duty and gratitude permit me not to attach myſelf. Being, therefore, to chuſe a new maſter, I come to offer myſelf and my ſervices in the firſt place to your majeſty." Abadid, who was a man of prudence and penetration, conceived a favourable opinion of the ſtranger, who had with ſo much frankneſs offered him his ſervices. He made him liberal preſents, and aſſigned him a diſtinguiſhed place among the officers of his court. Bhazmant might have been pleaſed with his new ſituation, if he could have baniſhed from his mind the remembrance of his former fortune, and could have forgotten that he had loſt a kingdom.

A neighbouring power was at that time threatening Abadid with an invaſion of his dominions. That prince put himſelf in a poſture of defence, and uſed every proper precaution, that he might be enabled to repulſe the enemy. He took arms himſelf and proceeded out of his capital, at the head of a numerous army. Bhazmant commanded the van-guard. The two armies joined battle. Abadid and Bhazmant behaved as experienced generals, diſtinguiſhed themſelves by prodigies of valour, and the enemy were totally defeated.

Bhazmant extolled to heaven the high deeds and the ſkilful plans of king Abadid. "Sire," ſaid he, "with an army ſo well diſciplined, and conducted ſo ſkilfully, you might conquer the moſt formidable nations upon earth." "You are miſtaken," replied the ſage monarch, "without God's aſſiſtance I ſhould not be able to reſiſt the feebleſt animal in the creation; it is only by truſting in him that we are enabled to exert our ſtrength and courage to advantage, to plan our enterprizes with prudence, and to preſerve that preſence of mind which is neceſſary in regulating all our operations. If I had not made my recourſe to him, my hands muſt have been weak, however apparently ſtrong."

"I am convinced of the truth of what you ſay," replied Bhazmant. "The misfortunes which I have myſelf ſuffered are an eminent proof of it. Falſe prudence has induced me to conceal from you hitherto my name and misfortunes. You behold before you the unhappy Bhazmant, whoſe too high confidence in his own ſtrength hindered him from uſing the proper means of maintaining himſelf upon his throne." At this acknowledgment Abadid was greatly ſurpriſed, and endeavoured to excuſe himſelf to Bhazmant for the reception which he had given him. "How could you know me," replied the dethroned prince, "when ſhame and confuſion kept me ſilent? Could you read upon my forehead a character which the juſtice of heaven had effaced? Great king," added he, embracing him, "I owe to your generoſity a particular detail of my errors; favour me with your attention." Bhazmant immediately proceeded to relate his ſtory.

"Dear brother," ſaid Abadid to him, after hearing what he had to ſay, "Humble not yourſelf before a man who long cheriſhed the ſame prejudices, and was corrected only by a ſeries of misfortunes ſimilar to yours. I have not been wiſer than you. We ſhould take inſtruction from our misfortunes. I once put my confidence in my own ſtrength and capacity, but, at the head of a numerous army, I was routed by an enemy who had only an handful of men to oppoſe me. Thus conſtrained to flee, I retired to the mountains with fifty men, who would not abandon me. Providence led me to the cell of a derviſe who had devoted himſelf entirely to the exerciſe of religion. He pointed out to me the ſources of my misfortunes. He told me that my enemy truſted in God, and had therefore been enabled to

attack

attack me with ſucceſs; whereas that I truſted in my lance and my battalions, and in my audacious temerity had neglected my duty, and given no orders that did not tend to miſlead. "Put your confidence," ſaid he, "in him who rules all here below; and if his arm be interpoſed in your behalf, five hundred men will be enough for the recovery of your dominions." The words of the ſage made a ſtrong impreſſion upon me; I looked to Heaven, and with a ſalutary confidence in the goodneſs of the Almighty, returned towards my capital. My enemy was blinded by proſperity. He had forgotten, amidſt voluptuous indulgence, thoſe ſage principles to which he was indebted for his ſucceſs. Every thing had the appearance of tranquility throughout his dominions; he thought himſelf ſecure in the poſſeſſion, and neglected to maintain his army in force. I arrived unexpectedly one evening. I ran ſtraight to the palace, with my few followers, whoſe numbers were, however, augmented by perſons who crowded around them out of curioſity. That irregular crowd became, within the gates of the palace, a formidable army. Diſmay and terror marched in our train. The uſurper had hardly time to make his eſcape; and next day, I found myſelf re-eſtabliſhed on my throne, and in the peaceful poſſeſſion of my dominions."

This narrative of Abadid's adventures produced an entire change upon the ſentiments of Bhazmant. "You have inſpired me," ſaid this prince, "with a confidence like your own; I ſhall learn to repoſe my truſt to the ſame Being who helped you. Only God and his great prophet can replace my crown upon my head; I will take no other means to recover it, but the very ſame by which you ſucceeded." He immediately took leave of Abadid, and proceeded to a deſert, through which he was to paſs, before reaching his own dominions. Having put his confidence in the ſovereign arbiter of human fate, and imploring in prayer the protection of providence, he went on till he reached the ſummit of a hill. There, overcome by fatigue, he lay down, fell aſleep, and ſaw a viſion in a dream. A voice ſeemed to ſay, "Bhazmant, God has heard thy prayer; he accepts thy penitence. March on, void of fear." The prince imagined this the voice of his guardian angel, and haſtened on to his capital. Hardly had he reached the frontiers of his kingdom, when he met a party of his moſt faithful ſubjects. They lived in a tent, and were ready to retire to ſome other aſylum, whenever the tyranny of the uſurper ſhould purſue them thither. Without making himſelf known. He entered into converſation with them, and told them that he was journeying towards the capital. They wiſhed to divert him from his purpoſe, deſcribing the avenues to the city as dangerous, and repreſenting to him, that fear and ſuſpicion were ſeated on the throne, and that ſtrangers who approached were thought to be emiſſaries from Bhazmant, and liable to be cut off by the tyrant." "Do you then remember your former monarch with regret?" aſked he, being certain that they could not recogniſe him. "Ah!" replied they, "would to heaven that our worthy monarch were here! he would find a ſanctuary in the hearts of all his ſubjects, and an hundred thouſand arms to vindicate his cauſe. The monſter that depoſed him, confiding preſumptuouſly in his ſtrength, ſacrifices all to his lawleſs deſires, and, at the ſlighteſt alarm, has recourſe to the ſword of the executioner." "He is wrong," replied Bhazmant, "to truſt in his army. The beſt ſupport of kings is the favour of the moſt high. For my own part, led thither as I am, by no other motives except the deſire of gaining knowledge by travel, yet knowing that while I have divine providence to protect me, none can do me hurt, I will, without fear, approach a place which your maſter's unneceſſary precaution occaſions to be conſidered as dangerous." "We conjure you to do no ſuch thing," replied thoſe people in a tone of concern. "Do not give us a new evil to weep for. Since you are ſo good a muſſulman, wait patiently till the juſtice of heaven ſtrike the tyrant. The moment cannot be far diſtant, for he has filled up the meaſure of his crimes. If men reſiſt him not,

yet

yet muſt the columns of his palace fall down to cruſh him to death." Bhazmant hearing theſe words felt his hopes revive. He threw off his diſguiſe, and made himſelf known to them as their monarch. At the ſame inſtant thoſe faithful ſubjects, who had for his ſake left their country, caſt themſelves at his feet, kiſſing his hands, and bathing them with their tears. A part of the warriors compoſed a guard to defend his perſon, while the reſt ſpread themſelves through the country, to give notice of his happy return, and to form a combination for his ſupport. He had ſoon a formidable army ready to advance to the capital. The tyrant was dethroned, and Bhazmant reſumed the reins of empire, amidſt the joyful acclamations of his whole people.

On Modern Biography.

To the Editor.

SIR,

IT has lately become a queſtion of ſome importance, how biography ought to be written in order to convey the greateſt poſſible degreee of inſtruction. It is admitted on all hands that this branch of hiſtory is capable of more uſeful purpoſes than any other, becauſe the facts and events which biography records, come the neareſt home 'to men's buſineſs and boſoms.' In the hiſtory of a nation we are rather entertained as politicians, and enlightened as ſtateſmen, than improved as men. In the hiſtory of the riſe and decline of great empires, a ſublime curioſity is excited, a curioſity which has for its object men collectively, but, if I may uſe the phraſe, we look in vain for individuality. We may find a king or emperor, and trace his actions; but we recollect that his actions are more generally the actions of his counſellors or miniſters, and that the bravery or ſucceſs attributed to him are the aggregate bravery and ſucceſs of his ſubjects and ſoldiers: but we feel not an intereſt in his tranſactions as men, becauſe we behold him in a ſituation which in more than human probability we ſhall never fill, and which, in fact, has been filled by only a few hundreds ſince the world began. Indeed, if it were not for the entertainment which general hiſtory affords, the anxious curioſity it keeps up, and gratifies, and the national vanity which it ſometimes feeds; and if it were not a duty incumbent on thoſe who at all pretend to talk on public affairs to be acquainted with ſuch hiſtory, it would much oftener be laid aſide with diſguſt, than reſorted to for pleaſure. What does the hiſtory of moſt nations afford us, unleſs the detail of crimes and cruelties? The beſt and moſt amiable part of the progreſs of a people either cannot be recorded, or is but ſlightly touched upon, I mean, the peaceful current of improving arts, commerce and civilization. Theſe are omitted, while the hiſtorian beſtows his chief attention, and ſtudies hardeſt to develope the frauds of courts, to untwiſt the clue of political cunning, to detail the policy or intrigues of miniſters, or to enumerate the lives that are ſacrificed to the wrath of tyranny; the ſtruggles of ambition, or the deluſion of popular anarchy.

But in the biography of men diſtinguiſhed for natural or acquired excellence in any branch of ſcience, or any purſuit of uncommon utility and fame, we are ſeldom ſhocked by ſuch enormities, or if we meet with vices and failings, the advantage we derive from theſe being contraſted with ſhining virtues and talents affords us a leſſon of the utmoſt importance. The matter, in this caſe, comes home ſo cloſely to us, that we forget the diſtance between us and the party ſpoken of, and conſider him as one whoſe example we may follow where it appears to have been praiſeworthy, whoſe vices we are to ſhun and deplore by knowing what created and what promoted them, and whoſe fame we may aſpire to, in hopes that what has been *once* attained by diligence and induſtry, will not be denied to a faithful application of the ſame means.

As biography is allowed to fill the higheſt rank of utility, it has likewiſe of late been conſidered as the means by which the ampleſt gratification may be afforded to curioſity; and the accuſtom-

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ed method of writing men's lives has been departed from, to give place to a new mode, the propriety of which is a matter of doubt. To know the leading actions of an eminent life, to trace a man of genius from obſcurity to fame, from poverty to dignity, and to be informed of the connexion between his private and his public life, and even to have ſuch ſayings of his recorded as are peculiarly diſtinguiſhed for the wit or wiſdom they diſplay—all this is fairly to be expected, and is much to be deſired in the biography of learned and ingenious characters. But the queſtion is, whether it be fair and proper, or uſeful, to record every little failing, every haſty expreſſion, every ebullition of pride and vanity, from which at certain times, no man is free; every opinion given, whether in moments of peeviſhneſs or levity; and, in a word, every circumſtance that can poſſibly be collected from memory, hearſay, or any other way, which at all concerns the character, perſon, and conduct of him whoſe life is written?

It will probably occur to the readers of this article that this queſtion has ariſen from the manner in which the very juſtly celebrated Dr. Samuel Johnſon has been treated by his friends. 'They watched his death,' as Addiſon ſays, 'like ſo many undertakers, to make a penny of him;' or as a modern wit expreſſes himſelf with ſingular appoſiteneſs; they uſed the doctor, as the people uſe whales caſt upon any of the coaſts of England: 'ſhow the monſter for a penny a piece, and then ſell the blubber for what it will fetch.'—They have all combined to give the world every idle as well as ſenſible word he ſpoke, and every trifling as well as ſerious action he performed: they have given at full length every little failing or defect of temper, and a thouſand particulars which, if they ever occurred to any other man, were certainly thought unworthy of being recorded. Againſt ſuch a phalanx of ſpies and informers, it is impoſſible that any character can ſtand, much leſs that of a man who, with much bodily pain and uneaſineſs of mind, lived ſurrounded by *friends* (as they called themſelves) who pricked and goaded him in his agony, that they might take down what fell from him at a time when few men can poſſibly be ſuppoſed to have the command of themſelves. Whoever reads the anecdotes given of him muſt be ſatisfied that he was thus often tortured to ſpeak when he wiſhed to be ſilent, to give an opinion when he either had not formed one, or was not prepared to deliver it: when his temper was ruffled, his mind confuſed, and when conſequently, if he ſpoke at all, he ſpoke whatever came uppermoſt, glad, in all probability, by any means to get rid of thoſe who beſet him, and little thinking that the caſual converſation of a peeviſh hour would be faithfully recorded, and publiſhed. This, and this only, can account for many of the harſh, uncharitable and abſurd opinions which are given as his, but which no man who knows from his writings how to appreciate his merit, will ever think of attributing to him as the deliberate ſentiments of his heart.

Much, very much of this ſpecies of biography has been brought forward in the caſe of Dr. Johnſon, to the great mortification of his real friends, and to the ſatisfaction of none but thoſe who were formerly his enemies, and are now confirmed in their antipathies, or rather, to ſpeak more properly, have now ſomething to produce againſt him which cannot be denied, becauſe it comes from his profeſſed friends, who ſurely would not record any thing to his prejudice that was not true. So much more attentive have they been to the collection of anecdotes than to the duties of biography, that a life of this great and good man, written according to the genuine principles of biography, is yet a *deſideratum*; and his numerous *biographers* (I am obliged to uſe this word for want of a worſe) have hitherto contented themſelves with what he ſaid and did, without ever entering on the merits of what he wrote, on which, after all, his fame muſt ultimately depend. The admirers of the Rambler, the Idler, the Lives of the Poets, &c. will not be very anxious to know whether the author wore a grey wig or a black one; and future ſcholars will profit by the

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labours of our great lexicographer, without being informed how often he took phyſic during the compoſition of them.

But the queſtion is, are we, when we write a man's life, to tell all that we know of him? With ſubmiſſion to the biographers already noticed, I may venture to ſay that the proper anſwer to this queſtion will be given in the negative. We ought not tell *all* that we know, becauſe much of it may not be worth telling, and becauſe ſome of it, if divulged to the world, may injure the memory of the dead, and the happineſs of the living. That, for inſtance, which is imparted to us in confidence, ought not to be told, for why ſhould we think that death can annul the ſacred confidence of private converſation? Why ſhould we think that becauſe a man is dead and out of the reach of reſentment, we ought to divulge his private thoughts to the injury of his ſurvivors. What then, it will be ſaid, are we to record? The anſwer to this is very eaſy and obvious. We are to record all that will be uſeful to embelliſh, and faithfully pourtray the character and no more. *Secret* memoirs, little paltry failings and imperfections, common to all men, and therefore not worthy of notice as pertaining to men of genius, are like the filth and duſt which collect, or may be thrown by envious hands on a ſplendid monument. The ſculptor would rub away ſuch defilement, but he would have too much reſpect to his own fame, as well as to that of the deceaſed, to add to it; far leſs would he, if in his ſenſes, be the cauſe of its appearing there. If, however, the ſubject of a biographical memoir, was diſtinguiſhed for ſome great crime or vice; thoſe ought neither to be concealed nor palliated. It is a ſacred duty to record theſe with as much fidelity and abhorrence, as if he who committed them were of the loweſt rank of criminals. It would be abſurd to give a life of Eugene Aram, and to conceal that he was executed for committing a murder. But what connexion is there between the exerciſe of this ſo neceſſary a duty, and the extreme anxiety to record that a man, who was near-ſighted, eat fiſh with his fingers? All that is uſeful, conducive to any moral purpoſe, or that contributes to the fund of literature and criticiſm, ought no doubt to be recorded; but all converſations which originated in impertinence, and were carried on in ſpleen, and which may many years after create animoſities, without doing any poſſible good, ought to be concealed. If men's lighteſt words and moſt trivial actions are to be watched: if the 'ready tablet, and the ambuſhed pen are in waiting to ſtab the ſoul of confidence, and mutual friendſhip,' who can be ſafe? I have borrowed this expreſſion from an anonymous author, whoſe opinion on this ſubject ſo fully coincides with my own that I cannot reſiſt making a farther extract. 'It may be of uſe,' ſays he, 'to remark, that it is a common miſtake with men of ſuperior talents to chooſe thoſe for companions who cannot be competitors, and to fancy they are ſafe, becauſe they feel themſelves eaſy. They are never ſo ſafe as among their equals. In the proud competition of genius they may meet indeed with caſual ſhocks to their vanity, or their ſelf-love; but they will not meet with thoſe who watch their expreſſions, who lie in wait for their frailties, and who receive amends for the conſtraint they lie under in *their* preſence, by taking conſequence to themſelves in other company, from publiſhing their unguarded ſallies, detecting their petty habitudes, or injuring their juſt fame, by the exaggerations of injudicious praiſe.'

In reading thoſe excellent pieces of biography which former writers have given us, and of which the greater part may be found in the Biographia Britannica, the rational enquirer is, in moſt caſes, completely gratified, although he finds not ſuch food as can pleaſe only thoſe whoſe appetites reliſh keen ſcandal, and who love to grub among the aſhes, when they might contemplate the ſublime ſtructure? Our admiration of Locke is no wiſe diminiſhed by our ignorance of the ſize of his walking ſtick, or the table liquor he drank; nor are we greatly diſappointed, in the life of Newton, by its not being recorded that he collected the rinds of oranges, when

he was maſter of the mint, or wore black ſtockings, when a member of the royal ſociety. Men like theſe, and minds congenial with ſuch men, will ſay, *Non magna loquimur, ſed vivimus.*

I have been led to offer you theſe remarks, Mr. Editor, purely from my regard to the ſcience of biography, which I cannot but conſider as of too high importance to be trifled with merely to gratify an idle curioſity; and I ſhall conclude my letter, with what one of the firſt biographers of the age ſays in favour of his purſuit. 'Biography may be conſidered in two lights. It is very agreeable and uſeful, when it has no other view than merely to relate the circumſtances of the lives of eminent men, and to give an account of their writings. But it is capable of a ſtill nobler application. It may be regarded as preſenting us with a variety of events, that, like experiments in natural philoſophy, may become the materials from which general truths and principles are to be drawn. When biographical knowledge is employed in enlarging our acquaintance with human nature, in exciting an honourable emulation, in correcting our prejudices, in refining our ſentiments, and in regulating our conduct, it then attains its true excellence. Beſide its being a pleaſing amuſement, and a juſt tribute of reſpect to illuſtrious characters, it riſes to the dignity of *ſcience*; and of ſuch ſcience as muſt ever be eſteemed of peculiar importance, becauſe it has *man* for its object.' I am, ſir, &c.

R. R.

Extract from the Adventures of a Shilling, lately publiſhed.

ONE of Hammond's ſervants having aſked his permiſſion to go over to Windſor to ſee a ſiſter, who was ſettled there; he granted his requeſt, and gave the lad poor *me*, that he might ſee the play.

I was accordingly, paid away at the gallery door of the Windſor playhouſe and the next morning which was Saturday, was given to one of the company, who was, unfortunately, troubled with one of the greateſt evils that a man can labour under—it was, the perpetually carrying about with him,

'A diſcontented and repining ſpirit.'

Before I had been in his poſſeſſion a quarter of an hour, he met one of his brethren, who aſked him, in a friendly manner, if he was to be of their dinner party?'

'Hey! dinner-party? why, what are you to have for your dinner?'

'Why I don't exactly know—but there will be ſome fine roaſt veal, my boy, and an excellent bowl of punch after it.'

'Piſh! ſtaggering bob, and ſlow poiſon!—no—I ſhall be otherwiſe engaged.'

He was indeed otherwiſe engaged; for the ſame afternoon he decamped, without beat of drum, leaving the manager to procure another Friar Lawrence for the following Monday, or to change the play—*pro re natâ.*

The fact was, he (like many others of his profeſſion) conceived his abilities to be of a firſt-rate, when they were in reality, ſcarcely of a ſixth-rate order; and on the manager's refuſing him the part of the gay *Mercutio* (for which his age as well as incapacity rendered him totally unfit), he took this paltry method of revenge.

Juſtice, however (which, ſooner or later, overtakes petty raſcals as well as villains of note, indeed all thoſe

'That have within them undivulged crimes Unwhipp'd—')

purſued his ſteps, and overtook him at *Saliſbury*.

In plain Engliſh, the manager of that theatre ſo mortified his vanity by his treatment of him, that he heartily repented his having quitted ſo abruptly the royal brow of Windſor.

On his arrival at that place, ſo celebrated for its penknives and the lofty ſpire of its cathedral, he waited on the governor of the children of Theſpis, ſolicited an engagement (which was granted), and requeſted to make his firſt appearance in Othello, Moor of Venice.

The manager conſented. On the night appointed he made an *entrée* in a flaming ſcarlet coat, white flannel waiſtcoat, blue cotton ſtockings, cocked hat,

hat, and ramalié—but performed the character so little to the satisfaction of the audience, that, long before he announced it, they heartily wished "*Othello's occupation gone!*"

The Moor himself, however, was well pleased. He thought, and with justice, that Barry, when living, played it *as well*; but he doubted whether he had ever played it better.

The manager, it should seem, was of a very different opinion; for, the next morning, the unfortunate stroller saw his name attached to the part of the second murderer in Macbeth, in the play bills for the next representation.

Full of indignation and resentment, he flew to the apartment of the theatrical monarch, and, without knocking at the door, burst into the room with the abrupt question,

'What on earth, do you mean, sir, by the gross affront you have put upon me?'

'What affront, sir?'

'Why, sir, there is my name in the bills for the second murderer.'

'A mistake of the printer's, sir—entirely a mistake.'

'Oh, sir,' quite softened, 'tis very well, if that's the case—then, pray, sir, what character am I to perform? for, I am sure, in so full a piece you must want my assistance?'

'What character, sir, why the *first* murderer—for I am convinced you'll do it more justice than any man in my company.'

It was to no purpose that the other remonstrated, stormed, vowed vengeance, with a long train of *et cætera*: the manager was inflexible.

The actor (calling to mind that I and two of my brethren were the only friends he had left, and not looking upon silver with the eyes of *Bassanio*,

'I'll none of thee, thou pale and common drudge
'Twixt man and man—')

submitted to the indignity, and retired to his lodgings, planning all the way an hundred different schemes of revenge.

When the night came, my owner grumbled out his short part: previous to which I was witness to a very curious scene, that may, possibly, divert the reader as much as it did myself.

The manager performed Macbeth: and in the representation, when the Thane came off the stage to perpetrate the supposed murder of Duncan, his property-man (the account of whose office is so humourously treated by Addison, in one of the numbers of "The Guardian") had neglected to procure the necessary article of blood, for the actor to besmear his hands with, and justify the observation of 'this is a sorry sight!' When Macbeth therefore impatiently, and in a violent hurry, asked, 'well, sir, where's the blood?' the reply was, in a kind of hesitating trepidation, 'sir—I'm very sorry—but—I've quite—forgot it.'

'You have, sir—well then, stand still——there——' at that instant striking the property-man a severe blow on the nose, whence issued a copious stream; 'there——that will do——there's enough—and immediately returned to lady Macbeth with the very *à-propos* quotation, 'I've done the deed—didst thou not, &c.'

In the intervening time betwixt this and the following play-night my brethren were separated.

Happily. A Moral Tale, from the French.

NO, madam, said the abbé de Chateauneuf to the old marchioness of Lisban, I cannot believe that what is called virtue in a woman, is so rare as is imagined; for instance, without going further, I would lay a wager that you never strayed from it. Why really, my dear abbé, I am very near saying, like Moliere's Agnes, don't lay.—— Should I lose? No; you would win; but, by so very little, that, upon my word, it is not worth bragging of.—As much as to say your virtue has been in danger?—Yes, yes, it has been in many a storm, aye, and near shipwrecked too. But happily I am safe arrived in port.—Will you be so kind, said the abbé, as to relate your adventures?—With all my heart; we are now, my good

old friend, of an age to lay aſide all diſſimulation. I ſee my youthful days in ſuch a diſtant perſpective, that I may talk of them as a pleaſing dream.

If you recollect the marquis of Liſban, he was one of thoſe vacant figures inſipidly handſome, that ſeems to ſay, *this is* ME: full of that kind of aukward vanity which always miſſes its aim, ſetting the higheſt value on himſelf, and had nothing in him to be valued for. He would force his diſcourſe upon you, impoſe ſilence, and talk nonſenſe; laughed at what he was about to tell, and nobody ſo much as ſmiled at his tale; he often endeavoured at refinement, and refined ſo much, that he did not know what he was ſaying. When the women were fatigued with his impertinence, he fancied they were muſing on him; if they diverted themſelves with his ridiculouſneſs, 'twas making him advances. —Ah, dear madam, what a bleſſed diſpoſition!——In our firſt interviews, I was entertained with an account of his amours; I began to hear him with impatience, I ceaſed to liſten with diſguſt. I even took the liberty to inform my parents, that I thought him the moſt tireſome, dull creature on earth. They told me that I was a ſimpleton: for that a huſband was always ſo. We were married. They made me promiſe to love him, and him alone; my lips ſaid *yes*, my heart ſaid *no*: and my heart told truth. Count Palmene, a friend of my huſband's, made us a viſit; he was endowed with all the graces of mind and perſon. The marquis introduced him to me, and did the honours of my modeſty: he anſwered all the agreeable things the count was pleaſed to ſay on his happineſs, with an air of ſelf ſufficiency that raiſed my indignation. If you gave credit to what he ſaid, I loved him to an exceſs; from thence proceeded thoſe indiſcreet, fulſome declarations of pretended confidences, that are equally ſhocking to truth and good manners, where vanity makes an abuſe of that ſilence which modeſty enjoins. I could hold no longer. I left the room, and Palmene might eaſily ſee, by my behaviour, that the marquis impoſed upon him. What an impertinent puppy is my huſband! thought I to myſelf; he boaſts of his triumphs, becauſe he knows I have not the courage to contradict him. People will believe him, and ſuppoſe me to have ſo little taſte as to be in love with the moſt empty, vain coxcomb in the world. Had he only mentioned my ſtrict performance of my duties, that might be endured; but to be in love! have a weak fondneſs! that is too much. I ſhall appear contemptible; no, no, it ſhall not be ſaid that I am ſo great a fool as to doat upon my huſband; but above all, it is incumbent on me to undeceive the count.

The marquis, who was delighted to have made me bluſh, did not apprehend any more than I did then myſelf, what was the real cauſe of my anger and confuſion. He valued himſelf too much, and me too little, to vouchſafe to be jealous. You have behaved like a child, ſaid he, as ſoon as Palmene was gone, and yet for all that, he thinks you a charming creature; but don't truſt too much to what he ſays; for, let me tell you, he is a dangerous man. I felt it better than he could tell it.

Next day, count Palmene renewed his viſit; he found me alone. Will you pardon me, madam, ſaid he, to have been the innocent cauſe of the little confuſion I ſaw you in yeſterday! I ſhould have been glad to have diſpenſed with the marquis's chuſing me for his confidante. I cannot imagine, I replied, caſting down my eyes, why he takes ſo much pleaſure to relate what gives me ſo much pain to hear.—Ah! madam, when a man is ſo happy, a little indiſcretion is excuſeable.—If he is happy, I wiſh him joy; but really I don't know what grounds he has for it. How can he be otherwiſe, reſumed the count with a ſigh, when he poſſeſſes the moſt charming woman in the world? Well, ſir, I'll ſuppoſe that I am what you are pleaſed to ſay, where is the honour, the merit, the happineſs, to poſſeſs me? Did I give myſelf to him?—No, madam, but if I may believe him, you ſoon approved of the choice that was made for you. Will men then never conſider, that we learn diſſimulation from our infancy; that

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we looſe our frankneſs with our liberty, and that it is too late to exact ſincerity, when it has been laid down to us as a duty to have none at all?

I think though, my good friend, I forgot that duty a little, when I ſo openly ſpoke my mind; I was ſenſible of it, but it was done; and Palmene took it, no doubt, in that light. When a woman owns ſhe does not love her huſband, 'tis next to ſaying ſhe loves ſomebody elſe; and whoever ſuch a declaration is made to, is likely to be the man. This notion, I fancy, threw the count into a pleaſing reverie. You muſt then, ſaid he, after ſome ſilence, be a great diſſembler indeed; for the marquis has told me ſuch ſurpriſing things of your mutual love.—With all my heart, let him flatter himſelf as much as he pleaſes. I ſhall never ſtrive to undeceive him.—But, madam, is your ſituation then to be pitied?—I do my duty, and I ſubmit to my fate; aſk no further queſtions, and I intreat you not to make a wrong conſtruction of what my huſband's imprudence, my own vexation and natural ſimplicity, have drawn from me.—Make a wrong conſtruction! I, madam, no; I'd ſooner die than be unworthy of your truſt; but I muſt have that truſt confided without reſerve in me alone; look upon me henceforward as a ſincere friend, who will partake of all your troubles, and in whoſe faithful breaſt you may ſafely depoſit them.

The name of friend filled my heart with a pleaſing treacherous tranquility. I had no diffidence either on his account or my own. To be ſure a friend of two days date, formed as the count was, and at his age, muſt ſeem the moſt reaſonable and decent thing that could poſſibly be: and a huſband, ſuch as mine, muſt of courſe, appear the moſt ridiculous and inſupportable creature in the world. From that time, the marquis obtained of me no more than thoſe cold compliances my duty obliged me to yield to; which he had the folly to be proud of, and ſtill it was to Palmene that he communicated and exaggerated his happineſs. Palmene could hardly think what all this meant. Why endeavour to impoſe upon me? he would ſometimes ſay; why ſhould you diſown ſo reaſonable an attachment? Are you aſhamed to declare the contrary?—No, ſir, I am not ſo happy as to have any reaſon to retract. In ſaying this, my heart was full, my eyes ready to overflow. What did not Palmene ſay to ſooth my diſtreſs? What pleaſure to liſten to his ſympathizing proteſtations? Ah! my dear abbé, what a dangerous comforter! in ſhort, he uſurped an abſolute empire over all my ſentiments, except my love for him, which was the only ſecret I had not entruſted him with. He never had as yet declared his to me, but under the maſk of friendſhip; but, at laſt, taking advantage of the power he aſſumed, he wrote to me thus:

"I have deceived you and myſelf. That ſweet and tranquil friendſhip, to which I gave myſelf up without reſerve, is, I find, become the moſt paſſionate and violent love that ever was. I ſhall wait upon you this evening, to devote to you my life, or bid you an eternal adieu."

I can't explain to you, my good friend, what different emotions agitated me all together; I know that there was a mixture of virtue, love, and fear; and I know likewiſe, that there was ſomething of joy. I laid my ſcheme to make a fine defence. Firſt, I was reſolved not to be alone; for I'll give orders that I am at home to all viſitors; and then I ſhall ſo overlook him, as not to give him an opportunity of fixing his eyes on mine. That effort will coſt me dear; but virtue is not virtue for nothing. In ſhort, I will avoid any private converſation; and, if he dares to aſſume one, I ſhall anſwer him in ſuch a manner, ay, in ſuch a manner as to humble him.

My reſolution thus fixed, I ſat me down to my toilet; and to be ſure it was without deſign; but I dont't know, I dreſſed myſelf with more care and elegance than uſual. As according to my orders I was at home to all that came, I had that evening a great company, which inſtead of pleaſing me, 'tis odd, you will ſay, put me out of humour; and my huſband, to fill up the meaſure of my vexation, as if he did it

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on purpoſe, was more aſſiduous and more troubleſome than ever. Palmene came at laſt; he bowed to me with a modeſt confuſion; I returned a very low courtſey, without ſo much as looking at him; and I ſaid to myſelf, Bravo! this will do. The converſation was at firſt general; but Palmene now and then dropped ſome words, which were of little or no ſignificance to the reſt of the company; but were very ſignificant to me. I feigned not to underſtand them, and valued myſelf greatly in keeping up a vigour ſo well timed. I ſaw Palmene was afraid to come near me; but my huſband, with his fooliſh familiar jokes, obliged him to it. The count's reſpect and timidity began to ſoften my reſolution. Poor thing, thought I, he is more to be pitied than blamed; if he durſt, he would aſk me pardon; but to be ſure he never can dare to do it. I gave ſome kind of a look that emboldened him. Madam, ſaid he, I have been imprudent; will you forgive me?—No, ſir; that *no* pronounced in a certain tone, ſeemed to me ſublime. Palmene roſe to take his leave; but the marquis forced him to ſay. Come, my dear count, ſupper is on the table, be gallant and ſquire my wife; ſhe is a little out of humour; but we'll put her in again.

Palmene quite concerned, could not refrain from gently ſqueezing my hand; I looked at him, and ſaw in his eyes the image of love and grief. I own, my dear abbé, I was affected; and, by a motion which proceeded from my heart, my hand anſwered to the ſoft impreſſion of his. I cannot deſcribe the ſudden alteration of his countenance. Joy ſparkled in his eyes with more than uſual brilliancy; and that joy was ſoon diffuſed through the whole company: all ſeemed animated by his example, with love and the deſire of pleaſing.

The converſation turned upon gallantry. My precious huſband, who thought himſelf a very Ovid in the art of love, ſaid, according to cuſtom, an hundred fooleries; which the count, in anſwering him, ſoftened with a politeneſs and delicacy that charmed me. *Happily* a young coxcomb, that ſat next me, took it in his head to make me pretty ſpeeches. *Happily* I lent him ſome attention, and anſwered him with civility. Palmene, the charming Palmene's temper and language changed all of a ſudden; the converſation paſſed from love to coquetry. The count declaimed againſt that general deſire of pleaſing every body, with a warmth and gravity that ſurpriſed me. I could forgive, ſaid he, a woman that changes her lover; nay, I could bear with her having ſeveral at a time; all that is in nature; it is not her fault if ſhe is not to be fixed; at leaſt ſhe does not endeavour to captivate more than thoſe ſhe likes, and renders happy; and, if ſhe favours two or three, 'tis a bleſſing multiplied. But a coquette is a tyrant that would ſubdue all that behold her, merely for the pleaſure of making them her ſlaves. She is herſelf her only idol, without the leaſt regard for any body elſe; her pride ſports with our foibles, and triumphs in our pains: her looks are falſehood, her lips deceit, her diſcourſe, her whole conduct a ſeries of ſnares; her graces are but alluring ſyrens, and her charms ſo many poiſons.

Such an exclamation aſtoniſhed the whole company. What! ſaid the young gentleman who had addreſſed me, would you prefer a woman of pleaſure before a coquette?—No doubt. I ſhould, and without heſitation. Why that is more convenient, ſaid I, ironically; and leſs blameable too, replied he, in a peeviſh tone; yes, madam, a thouſand times leſs blameable. I was provoked at ſuch an inſult. Sir, reſumed I with diſdain, you may, if you think fit, impute to us as a crime the moſt innocent and moſt natural of amuſements; your opinion, I fancy, will never paſs for law. You ſay that coquettes are tyrants; you are yourſelf a much greater tyrant, when you would deprive us of the only advantage our ſex has received from nature. If we muſt renounce the deſire of pleaſing, what have we to do in ſociety? Talents, genius, heroic virtues, you have them all, or think you have them all. A woman has only the privilege of endeavouring to appear amiable, and you unmerciſully condemn her, to be ſo only in the eyes of one particular perſon; 'tis annihilating the world

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for us, and burying us alive among the living. Oh! madam, said Palmene, with resentment, I own you are very fit for a pattern in this age; 'tis what I should not have believed. You are in the wrong, resumed my husband; my wife's ambition is to please all the world; but I am the only person she will ever make happy. It is a little cruel, and so I have often told her; but what can I do? it is her foible; if people will be taken in, they must bear with the consequences; it is not her fault; then why should you look upon it in so serious a light, what she only says in jest? if she likes to hear herself praised, is that any reason why she must answer in the same strain? 'tis me alone she loves; what is more natural? But as for you, my friend, and others, her admirers, who only amuse her, you can have no pretensions to her heart. No, that she has given to me; and I defy all the world to rob me of it. Oh, sir, 'tis enough, said Palmene, if you quote the marchioness for an example, I shall make no reply. So saying, we rose from table.

From that moment, I conceived for the count, I don't say an absolute aversion, but a dread of him that came very near it. What a man, thought I to myself! What an imperious temper! the woman that yields to him must become wretched. As soon as supper was over, he fell into a sullen silence, out of which there was no drawing him. At length, having found a moment's opportunity of speaking to me alone, he asked me, with all the authority of a severe judge, whether I really thought as I had spoke?—Assuredly.—'Tis enough: you shall never see me more.

Happily he kept his word: and I perceived, from the vexation this rupture gave me, the danger I had narrowly escaped. Ay, thus it is, said the abbé, like a profound moralist, you see what a moment's altercation produces; a trifle, a nothing becomes serious; a quarrel; a submission! love takes the alarm, and decamps.

The chevalier Luzel's character, resumed the marchioness, was the reverse of Palmene's.—This chevalier, I suppose, was the youngster that coquetted with you at supper?—The very same. He was as handsome as Narcissus, and loved himself as much. He had a certain smart cleverness, like wit; but, not a grain of common sense.

What a dull mortal, said he, is your count Palmene! for goodness sake; madam, what do you do with such a man? He talks, he moralises, he knocks you down with his arguments. For my part, I know but two things, to amuse and be amused. I have seen the world, and understand mankind; I find that the greatest misfortune in life is not to know how to amuse yourself: and that proceeds from a dull evenness of temper, a constancy in your attachments, and, worst of all, a solidity in your reasoning, in short, a monotony that lulls even pleasure to sleep; whereas vivacity, fickleness, and coquetry enlivens and keeps it awake; for which reason, I doat upon coquettes. They are the life of society. Besides, your condescending ladies at length grow tiresome, and 'tis very fit to look out for somebody with whom you may rest from your labour. I answered him, with a smile, that I was the fittest person in the world for his purpose; for that he might take his rest with me at full leisure.—That's the very thing I am in quest of; all that I desire of a coquette; let her oppose, resist, and make a brave defence. Yes, I should fly from you, if I thought you capable of a serious attachment. Why, madam, resumed the abbé, with great gravity, this young fop was a man to put you on your guard.—He was, indeed, my good friend, and I soon perceived it. At first I treated him as a child, and that absolute ascendant which my reason assumed over him, was very flattering for one of my age; but I began to grow uneasy about who should draw him from me. His frequent absence put me out of humour, and his connections raised my jealousy. I insisted upon his quitting my rivals, and would fain have imposed laws.

My dear marchioness, said he to me one day, as I was reproaching him with his continual dissipations, have you a mind to perform a little miracle? Make me sedate and virtuous all at once, I desire no better. I understood very well, that to make him, what he call-

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ed virtuous, I muſt ceaſe to be ſo myſelf. However, I aſked him what ſhould prevent this little miracle? Little or nothing, anſwered he; methinks we love one another, the reſt will follow of courſe.—If we love one another, as you ſay, and as I don't believe, the miracle would already be compleated; for love alone would have made you virtuous and wiſe.—All that is talk, madam, let there be juſtice on both ſides; I'll abandon every other heart to poſſeſs your's alone; for better or worſe; the chance of the game, I'll run the riſk, but there is an exchange to be made, for you cannot in conſcience exact, that I ſhould give up all my pleaſures for nothing. Why, madam, interrupted the abbé, this chevalier was not ſo void of ſenſe as you painted him. I think he reaſoned mighty conſequentially. I was ſurpriſed, replied the marchioneſs; but the more I felt he was in the right, the more I ſtrove to perſuade him that he was in the wrong. I ſaid to him, at the ſame time, as well as I can remember, the fineſt things in the world, concerning honour, duty, and conjugal fidelity. He ſet them all at nought. He pretended that honour was merely decorum, marriage a ceremony, and the marriage vow only a piece of politeneſs, a compliment that laid you under no obligations. Thus we battled it pro and con, till we were loſt in our ideas; when, all of a ſudden, I heard my huſband coming.

Happily, madam!—O moſt happily, I aſſure you; never did huſband arrive more a-propos. We were in great confuſion; the flutter I was in, would have betrayed me; ſo without reflection, I ſaid to the chevalier, *hide yourſelf*. He ſlipped into my dreſſing-room—A dangerous place of retirement, madam—It was ſo; but the dreſſing-room opens into another apartment, ſo that I was very eaſy about his eſcape. I would lay a wager, marchioneſs, ſaid the abbé, with a waggiſh look, that the chevalier is ſtill in the dreſſing-room. Patience, replied ſhe, we are not yet come to the unravelling of the plot. My huſband came in with that ſelf-content that always appeared in his countenance; and I, to hide my embarraſment, ran with open arms and met him, with an exclamation of ſurpriſe and joy. Why, you little mad-cap, ſaid he, you ſeem vaſtly delighted to ſee me; am not I very good to come and ſpend the evening with my dear? What! are not you aſhamed to love your huſband? Do you know that it is very ridiculous? The world ſays that we ought to be ſhut up together in a box, or that I ſhould be baniſhed from you; for that, ſince you are my wife, you are good for nothing elſe; that you plague your lovers to death—I, Sir! I plague nobody; don't you know me better? I am the beſt-natured creature in the world.

[*To be continued.*]

Summary of the Campaign of 1793.

AT the beginning of the year 1793, the armies of France were in poſſeſſion of Nice, and Savoy, towards the ſouth; Mentz to the eaſt; all the low countries except Luxemburgh, and the biſhopric of Liege. Cuſtine had been employed in fortifying Mentz and Caſſel. On the 28th of February, the French general Miranda laid ſiege to Maeſtricht; and Dumourier advancing into Holland, made himſelf maſter of Gertruydenburgh and Breda, and laid ſiege to Williamſtadt.

This rapid ſucceſs compelled the allies to haſten the operations of the campaign. A party of Engliſh guards were ſent over for the defence of Holland. The prince of Cobourg and general Clairfait having collected what force they could, the latter advanced againſt Miranda, defeated him, and obliged him to raiſe the ſiege of Maeſtricht, and retire.

This firſt earneſt of ſucceſs was followed by more brilliant advantages. On the 3d of March, the prince of Cobourg gained a very important victory over the French near Aix-la-Chapelle, and in a few days Dumourier found it neceſſary to raiſe the ſiege of Williamſtadt, and retreat over the Scheldt.

The latter general quitting Holland, put himſelf at the head of the French

French forces, oppoſed to Cobourg and Clairſait. Having withdrawn his garriſons from Liege and Ruremond, which were immediately occupied by the combined forces. On the 14th of March, he met the prince of Cobourg near Tirlemont, but after an obſtinate engagement, was defeated. He made another attempt, and ſucceeded in driving them out of Tirlemont; but in a third action, victory declared in favour of the Auſtrians, and the French were obliged to make a rapid retreat.

Whether Dumourier had previouſly determined to act the part of a traitor to his country, or whether the panic with which the French ſeemed affected, convinced him that the cauſe of France was deſperate: he, without any further effort, abandoned all the conqueſts he had ſo lately achieved, and retired to the borders of France; leaving the French garriſons in Breda, Antwerp, and Gertruydenburgh, to make the beſt terms they could for themſelves, who ſurrendered, and had permiſſion to retire to France.

In this ſituation of affairs, Dumourier unmaſked himſelf; but his treaſon not having the ſucceſs he expected, it became neceſſary for him to provide for his ſafety by flight.

The ſituation of France was now truly critical. Within, diſcontents appeared in many departments, and the city of Lyons, one of the moſt conſiderable of the kingdom, had declared for Louis XVII. Without, immenſe armies were approaching from all ſides to attack her; while her own armies were defeated, and her generals and officers in many parts diſtruſted.

That principle which teaches a republican never to deſpair of his country, ſupported her apparently loſt cauſe. Dampierre, who ſucceeded to the command on the defection of Dumourier, rallied his ſcattered forces, ſecured Liſle and other frontier towns, and in a few days was able to look the combined forces in the face. Near Tournay, a ſevere battle had taken place, in which the French were worſted, and obliged to fall back to a ſtrong poſition, ſo as to cover Valenciennes. It being evidently the object of the combined forces to beſiege that place, and Condé. Here Dampierre fought three ſucceſſive and bloody battles; in the laſt of which he was mortally wounded, and died ſoon after.

Cuſtine was appointed to command the army in his room. However, before he had taken the command, the ſtrong camp at Famars was evacuated, the town of Condé blockaded, and the ſiege of Valenciennes commenced.

While theſe events paſſed in the north, the king of Pruſſia preſſed the ſiege of Mentz; the garriſon of which, after ſuſtaining incredible hardſhips capitulated on the 22d of July; a few days previouſly to which, Conde and Valenciennes likewiſe ſurrendered.

The triumphs of the enemies of France were now nearly drawing to a concluſion. After the taking of Valenciennes, the immenſe army of the prince of Cobourg ſeparated. The main body under the command of the prince, marched to inveſt Queſnoy; and the other party under the duke of York, began its march for Dunkirk, in order to attack that place. After fighting its way to the place of deſtination, the duke did not meet the Engliſh ſquadron which was intended to cooperate with him; and a ſucceſsful attack by the French general Houchard, compelled him to raiſe the ſiege with a great loſs, both of men and baggage.

Cobourg had ſucceeded better. Queſnoy had ſurrendered, and the combined armies had inveſted the town of Maubeuge, and the French camp which covered that town. But a reverſe of fortune now attended him alſo; general Jourdan on the 15th and 16th of October, attacked him with ſuch vigour and effect, that he was compelled after an immenſe loſs, to repaſs the Sambre. So completely were the affairs of the allies deranged by theſe two victories, that the utmoſt they have been able to effect, has been to defend the frontiers of Flanders.

On the Rhine, fortune for a time ſeemed alſo to favour them; but a ſevere reverſe there alſo attended them. The French generals took a ſtrong poſt between Wiſſemburgh and Louterburgh, to cover Alſace, which for a

time reſiſted all the attacks of the allies; but having at length ſucceeded in gaining poſſeſſion, as is generally ſuppoſed by the treachery of the French commander, their armies divided, and poured like torrents into Alſace. Wurmſer advanced to Straſburg; the prince of Brunſwick and Hohonlohe preſſed on by different roads. The genius of republicaniſm once more roſe ſuperior to all its enemies. The French armies of the Moſelle and Rhine, under the command of their generals Hoche and Pickegru, being reinforced, attacked the enemy's armies repeatedly for many days; and although often repulſed, at length ſucceeded in driving general Wurmſer over the Rhine, with the loſs of the beſt of his troops, and great part of his baggage; while the duke of Brunſwick was obliged to fall back to cover Mentz, leaving immenſe magazines to the conquerors. The particulars of theſe actions are little known; but it is allowed on all parts, that the loſs of men on both ſides is not leſs than 50,000.

Thus, except the towns of Valenciennes, Condé, and Queſnoy, are the allies obliged to finiſh the campaign on that ſide almoſt as they begun, after having ſuſtained immenſe loſſes, and expended incredible ſums of money.

But the moſt formidable enemies which France had to deal with, were within herſelf; Lyons we have already ſeen had revolted. In the Vendee, a conſiderable body of royaliſts aſſembled, and aſſumed the denomination of the Chriſtian army; and in Corſica, Paoli, hoiſted the ſtandard of rebellion againſt the convention. Nor was this all, for the arreſt of the Gironde party occaſioned commotions in various other departments: thoſe of the Rhone, Loire, and Calvadoes, openly oppoſing the convention. That body immediately took meaſures to defeat theſe intrigues; a conſiderable army laid ſiege to Lyons, and another advanced to Marſeilles, which opened its gates to the republicans: but the city of Toulon ſurrendered itſelf, with its arſenal and fleet, to the Britiſh admiral lord Hood. Lyons was compelled to ſurrender on the 8th of October, and the moſt exemplary puniſhment was inflicted on its inhabitants. Toulon, by the help of reinforcements from Naples, Barcelona, and Gibraltar, was able to reſiſt until the 19th of Dec. when that too was obliged to receive the victorious army of the republic; the combined forces quitting it with immenſe loſs.

The Chriſtian army in the Vendee has alſo ſuffered the moſt ſevere defeats; and although the accounts reſpecting them are contradictory, yet their ſituation ſufficiently ſhews that they are nearly exterminated.

While theſe great events were acting within, and on the frontiers of France, her fleet and armies were not idle in other parts. In the month of January, a French fleet appeared off Cagliari, the capital of Sardinia, and began to fire on the town. The troops were diſembarked about the middle of February, but ſome confuſion ariſing among them, their general was obliged to reimbark them, and give up the expedition, with the loſs of one ſhip of the line, the Leopard, which ran on ſhore: here the naval enterprize of France ſeems to have ended.

The Engliſh fleet and army ſoon after the declaration of war on the part of the French, began to act againſt them. The iſland of Tobago, in the Weſt Indies, ſurrendered; and the little iſlands of St. Pierre and Mequelon, were conquered by the Engliſh. Encouraged by the diſputes among the inhabitants of Martinique, a Britiſh fleet appeared off that iſland, and landed ſome troops to ſupport the royaliſts, but theſe receiving a check, were obliged to reimbark, taking with them as many of the royal party as the ſhips could carry off; but an incredible number of theſe unhappy people were left on ſhore, and ſlaughtered by their enraged countrymen. A ſmall diſtrict of the iſland of St. Domingo voluntarily ſurrendered to the Engliſh.

Such has been to the allies, the unfortunate iſſue of a campaign, which from the innumerable forces brought by

by them into the field, was ſuppoſed to promiſe the moſt brilliant ſucceſs.

The Natural Hiſtory of the Pike.

THE pike is a very long-lived fiſh, according to lord Bacon and Geſner; who ſay he out-lives all other freſh-water fiſh. Geſner tells us that, "in the year 1497, a pike was caught in a pond near Hailprum, in Saubia, with a braſs ring at his gills, in which were engraved theſe words: *I am the firſt fiſh which Frederic the ſecond, governor of the world, put into this pond the fifth of October*, 1233." Whence it appears that the creature had then lived upwards of two hundred and ſixty years.

Pikes, if they live long, muſt be very expenſive to their keepers, becauſe they are ſupported by the death of ſo many other fiſh, and even thoſe of their own kind. A pike will devour a fiſh that is larger than his throat or belly can receive, and ſwallowing a part of him, will let the other part remain in his mouth till the ſwallowed part is digeſted; and thus proceed gradually till the whole body is conſumed.

Well may he be called *the Tyrant of the Rivers*, if only a ſmall part of the ſtories related of him are to be relied on. Bowlker, in his Art of Angling, page 9, gives the following inſtance of the voracity of this fiſh—— "My father catched a pike in Barn Meer (a large ſtanding water in Cheſhire,) that was an ell long, and weighed thirty-five pounds, which he brought to the lord Cholmondely: his lordſhip ordered it to be turned into a canal in the garden, where were abundance of ſeveral ſorts of fiſh. About twelve months after, his lordſhip drawed the canal, and found that this overgrown pike had devoured all the fiſh, except one large carp which weighed between nine and ten pounds, and that was bitten in ſeveral places. The pike was then put into the canal again, together with abundance of fiſh with him to feed upon, all which he devoured in leſs than a year's time: and was obſerved, by the gardener and workmen there, to take the ducks, and other water-fowl, under water: whereupon they ſhot magpies and crows, and threw them into the canal, which the pike took before their eyes. Of this they acquainted their lord, who thereupon ordered the ſlaughter-man to fling in calves-bellies, chickens guts, and ſuch like garbage, to him, to prey upon; but, being ſoon after neglected, he died, as ſuppoſed for want of food."

The following relation was inſerted as an article in one of the London papers, the ſecond of January 1765.—— "*Extract of a Letter from Littleport, Dec.* 17.—About ten days ago a large pike was caught in the river Ouſe, which weighed upwards of twenty-eight pounds, and was ſold to a gentleman in the neighbourhood for a guinea. As the cook-maid was gutting the fiſh, ſhe found, to her great aſtoniſhment, a watch with a black ribbon, and two ſteel ſeals annexed, in the body of the pike: the gentleman's butler, upon opening the watch, found the maker's name, *Thomas Cranefield, Burnham, Norfolk*. Upon a ſtrict enquiry, it appears, that the ſaid watch was ſold to a gentleman's ſervant, who was unfortunately drowned about ſix weeks ago, in his way to Cambridge, between this place and South-Ferry. The watch is ſtill in the poſſeſſion of Mr. John Roberts, at the Croſs-keys, in Littleport, for the inſpection of the public."

The following article alſo appeared in the ſame paper, on the twenty-fifth day of the ſame month and year.—— "On Tueſday laſt, at Littleſhal lime-works, near Newport, a pool, about nine yards deep, which has not been fiſhed for ages, was let off by means of a level brought up to drain the works, when an enormous pike was found; he was drawn out by a rope faſtened round his head and gills, amidſt hundreds of ſpectators, in which ſervice a great many were employed: he weighed upwards of one hundred and ſeventy pounds, and is thought to be the largeſt ever ſeen. Sometime ago the clerk of the pariſh was trolling in the above pool, when his bait was ſeized by this furious creature, which by a

ſudden jerk pulled him in, and doubtleſs would have devoured him alſo, had he not by wonderful agility, and dexterous ſwimming, eſcaped the dreadful jaws of this voracious animal."

In Dr. Plot's Hiſtory of Staffordſhire, many relations are introduced of pikes of great magnitude; one in particular caught in the Thames, is ſaid to have been an ell and two inches long.

We are told by Geſner, that a man going into a pond (where the pike had devoured all the fiſh) the pike bit his mule by the lips; to which indeed he held ſo faſt, that the mule drew him out of the water, and by that accident the owner of the mule got poſſeſſion of the pike. The ſame author obſerves, that a pike bit the foot of a maid in Poland, as ſhe was waſhing clothes in a pond.

Mr. Walton, alſo ſays, "I have heard the like of a woman in Killingworth pond, not far from Coventry;" and immediately adds—"I have been aſſured by my friend Mr. Seagrave, that keeps tame otters, that he hath known a pike, in extreme hunger, fight with one of his otters for a carp that the otter had caught, and was then bringing out of the water."

At the marquis of Stafford's canal at Trentham, a pike ſeized the head of a ſwan, as ſhe was feeding under water, and gorged ſo much of it as killed them both. The ſervants perceiving the ſwan with its head under water for a longer time than uſual, took the boat, and found both ſwan and pike dead.

Further evidence of the voracity of this fiſh, accompanied with a pleaſant circumſtance, may be found in Fuller's Worthies, page 144.—We are there informed that, "A cub fox, drinking out of the river Arnus in Italy, had his head ſeized by a mighty pike, ſo that neither could free themſelves, but were ingrappled together. In this conteſt a young man runs into the water, takes them out both alive, and carries them to the duke of Florence, whoſe palace was hard by. The porter would not admit him, without a promiſe of ſharing his full half of what the duke ſhould give him; to which he (hopeleſs of entrance otherwiſe) condeſcended: the duke highly affected with the rarity, was about giving him a good reward, which the other refuſed, deſiring his highneſs would appoint one of his guard to give him an hundred laſhes, that ſo his porter might have fifty, according to his compoſition: and here my intelligence leaveth me how much farther the jeſt was followed."

Anecdotes of Mrs. Wright.

MRS. MEHETABEL WRIGHT (the ſiſter of the celebrated JOHN WESLEY) was her mother's tenth or eleventh child; and it has been ſaid, that when ſhe was eight years old, ſhe could read the Greek teſtament. From her infancy ſhe was gay and ſprightly, and extremely addicted to wit and humour. As ſhe grew up, ſhe indulged herſelf in theſe diſpoſitions ſo far, as to give great uneaſineſs to her parents, and was often betrayed into little inadvertencies, which contributed, at leaſt, to her future unhappineſs in life. About the year 1724, or the beginning of 1725, a gentleman, reſpectable, ſo far as we can find, both for his abilities and ſituation in life, paid his addreſſes to her, and ſhe had a ſincere regard for him. But, from ſome circumſtance or other, he and her father diſagreed, and the affair was broken off. From a concurrence of circumſtances in the end of the year 1725, ſhe was induced to marry a perſon no way adapted to make her happy; being low and rude in addreſs, and much inferior to her in underſtanding; and he proved unkind to her. Her ſituation preyed upon her mind, her health and ſtrength gradually waſted away, and at length ſhe ſunk into a degree of melancholy that made her truly wretched. Moſt of her verſes which have been preſerved, though beautiful, and written in the true ſtate of poetry, are ſaddened with an air of deep diſtreſs, which ſtrongly marks this ſtate of body and mind. The following addreſs to her huſband will give us ſome notion of his character, and ſhew us the true cauſe of her wretchedneſs.

Mrs.

New pattern for working an Apron or Handkerchief.

Mrs. Mehetabel Wright to her Huſband.

THE ardent lover cannot find
A coldneſs in his fair unkind,
But blaming what he cannot hate,
He mildly chides the dear ingrate;
And though deſpairing of relief,
In ſoft complaining vents his grief.
Then what ſhould hinder but that I,
Impatient of my wrongs may try,
By ſaddeſt ſofteſt ſtrains, to move
My wedded, lateſt, deareſt love?
To throw his cold neglect aſide,
And cheer once more his injured bride.
O! thou whom ſacred rights deſign'd,
My guide and huſband ever kind;
My ſov'reign maſter, beſt of friends,
On whom my earthly bliſs depends;
If e'er thou didſt in Hetty ſee
Aught fair, or good, or dear to thee;
If gentle ſpeech can ever move
The cold remains of former love,
Turn thee at laſt—my boſom eaſe,
Or tell me why I ceaſe to pleaſe.
Is it becauſe revolving years,
Heart breaking ſighs, and fruitleſs tears,
Have quite depriv'd this form of mine
Of all at once thou fanciedſt fine?
Ah no! what once allur'd thy ſight,
Is ſtill in its meridian height;
Theſe eyes their uſual luſtre ſhew,
When un'eclips'd by flowing woe.
Old age and wrinkles in this face
As yet could never find a place;
A youthful grace adorns the lines,
Where ſtill the purple current ſhines;
Unleſs by thy ungentle art,
It flees to aid my wretched heart:
Nor does this ſlighted boſom ſhew
The thouſand hours it ſpends in woe.
Or is it that oppreſs'd with care
I ſtun with loud complaints thine ear,
And make thy home for quiet meant,
The ſeat of noiſe and diſcontent?
Oh no! theſe ears were ever free
From matrimonial melody.
For though thine abſence I lament,
When half the lonely night is ſpent;
Yet when the watch or early morn
Has brought me hopes of thy return,
I oft have wip'd theſe watchful eyes,
Conceal'd my cares, and curb'd my ſighs,
In ſpite of grief, to let thee ſee
I wore an endleſs ſmile for thee.
Had I not practis'd ev'ry art
T' oblige, divert and cheer thy heart,
To make me pleaſing in thine eyes,
And turn thy home to paradiſe,
I had not aſk'd, why doſt thou ſhun
Theſe faithful arms and eager run
To ſome obſcure unclean retreat,
With fiends incarnate glad to meet,
The vile companions of thy mirth,
The ſcum and refuſe of the earth!
Who then inſpir'd with beer can grin
At witleſs oaths, and jeſts obſcene;
Till the moſt learned of the throng
Begin a tale of ten hours long,
Whilſt thou in raptures, with ſtretch'd jaws,
Crowneſt each joke with loud applauſe.
Depriv'd of freedom, health, and eaſe,
And rivall'd by ſuch things as theſe,
This lateſt effort will I try,
Or to regain thine heart, or die;
Soft as I am I'll make thee ſee,
I will not brook contempt from thee.
'Then quit the ſhuffling doubtful ſenſe,
Nor hold me longer in ſuſpenſe,
Unkind, ungrateful as thou art,
Say muſt I ne'er regain thy heart?
Muſt all attempts to pleaſe thee prove
Unable to regain thy love?
If ſo by truth itſelf I ſwear,
The ſad reverſe I cannot bear;
No reſt, no pleaſure will I ſee,
My whole of bliſs is loſt with thee.
I'll give all thought of patience o'er,
(A gift I never loſt before)
Indulge at once my rage and grief,
Mourn obſtinate, diſdain relief;
And call that wretch my mortal foe,
Who tries to mitigate my woe;
Till life, on terms ſevere as theſe,

Shall

Shall ebbing leave my heart at eaſe;
To thee thy liberty reſtore,
To laugh when HETTY is no more.

On the Power of Muſic over Infants.

WE have many inſtances of the power of muſic ſounds over infants. Wolfgang Mozart, a native of Saltzbourg, in Bavaria, who died in December, 1731, at Vienna, was capable, before he was five years of age, not only of excuting leſſons on the harpſichord, but had compoſed many pieces of muſic, in a pleaſing ſtyle. At five years of age, he played before the empreſs Dowager, at Vienna; greatly diſtinguiſhed himſelf in Germany, France, England and Italy, and was honoured by the pope, with the order of the golden-ſpear. Philoſophical tranſactions, 1770, vol. LX.

Charles Weſley, ſon of the reverend Charles Weſley, of Briſtol, before he was three years old, diſcovered a ſtrong inclination to muſic, he played a tune on the harpſichord at this age, readily and in juſt time; his mother had uſed the harpſichord to quiet and amuſe him, almoſt from his birth; and before he could ſpeak, he would not ſuffer her to play with one hand only, but would take the other and put it on the keys. At four years old he was taken to London by his father, and introduced to the late Mr. Beard, Mr. Stanley, Dr. Worgan, and others, who expreſſed their pleaſure and aſtoniſhment. As his years encreaſed, his abilities ſtrengthened, and among others of his moſt excellent compoſitions, he compoſed ſome extraordinary pieces for two organs, which were wonderfully performed by himſelf and his brother Samuel.

Samuel Weſley, the brother of Charles, when three years old, attempted to play God ſave Great George our king, Fiſher's minuet, &c. and before he was eight years of age he compoſed ſeveral oratorios. At the age of eight years the late Dr. Boyce paid him a viſit, and he ſhewed him the oratorio of Ruth; the doctor after peruſing it with great attention, broke out into the higheſt terms of approbation, ſaying, that nature had given him by intuition what he had acquired by many years cloſe application.

William Crotch of Norwich, when two years and a month old, heard God ſave the king played on an organ, which his father had made, after which he was exceſſively fractious; his mother conceiving that he wanted to get to the organ, placed him before the keys; the boy immediately ſtruck them, but the tones then produced did not apply to any particular tune; however the next morning his mother plainly diſcovered that he ſucceſsfully attempted, God ſave the king. The muſical fame of this child ſpread quickly through the city of Norwich. His ear was ſo exquiſite, that at two years and a half old, he was able to diſtinguiſh any particular note on the organ, when ſtruck by another perſon. At a very early age he became a conſiderable performer, and has been viſited by moſt muſical people in London, and has himſelf viſited the moſt conſiderable cities in England. He is now organiſt of Chriſt church in Oxford.

The late earl of Mornington, well known to the muſical world as an eminent compoſer, whilſt in his nurſe's arms, was uncommonly attentive whenever his father, who was a good muſician, played on the violin. One Dubourg, who was at that time a diſtinguiſhed performer on that inſtrument, being at the earl's houſe, the child would not ſuffer him to take the violin from his father, till his little hands were held; but after hearing Dubourg play, there was much more difficulty to perſuade him to let Dubourg return the violin to his father, nor would he ever after permit his father to play when Dubourg was preſent. He did not commence performer till he was nine years old; from that time he continued to improve his great abilities, and being poſſeſſed of a very conſiderable fortune, had great opportunities of hearing and entertaining the firſt performers, and purchaſing the moſt valuable compoſitions, till in proceſs of time, his lordſhip was ſo diſtinguiſhed for his muſical abilities, that the Univerſity of Dublin conferred on him the degree of

doctor

doctor of muſic, and he was appointed king's profeſſor.

John Hammel was born at Vienna: before he was three years old he diſcovered a ſtrong propenſity for muſic. As ſoon as he was able to utter his letters diſtinctly, and with facility, he commenced his muſical education, under his father; and his improvement was far beyond his father's moſt ſanguine expectation. After ſome time he became a pupil of Mozart, whoſe manner and taſte on the piano-forte, he faithfully copied. When about five years of age, he played publicly, in the moſt correct ſtyle, and compoſed ſome ſelect pieces of muſic, which he continued to do, till he came to England in 1791, at which time he was ten years old. Since that he has acquired great fame by his aſtoniſhing performances on the grand piano-forte, at Hanover-ſquare concerts, and other places in London. In May laſt I heard him twice; the laſt time was at a friend's houſe, where, without the leaſt embarraſſment, he played one of the moſt difficult leſſons on the piano-forte I ever heard, with the greateſt neatneſs and preciſion; and I think I may venture to ſay, that few profeſſors would attempt to ſurmount the many extreme difficult and complicated paſſages which ran through the whole of this leſſon, and which he executed, as far as I could judge by the teſtimony of the ear, without miſſing a ſingle note. He told me the leſſon was his own compoſition.

John Davy was born in the pariſh of Upton Hilion, about eight miles from Exeter. His uncle, who lives in the ſame pariſh, told me that, when he was about three years of age, he came into the room where he was playing over a pſalm tune on the violoncello, and that the moment he heard the inſtrument he ran away crying, and was ſo terrified that he expected him every moment to fall into fits; that in the courſe of ſome weeks he repeatedly tried to reconcile him to the inſtrument which at laſt he effected, after a great deal of coaxing, by taking the child's fingers and making him ſtrike the ſtrings, which at firſt ſtartled him; but in a few days he became ſo paſſionately fond of the amuſement that he took every opportunity of ſcraping a better acquaintance with this monſter, who in the hands of his keeper had dreadfully frightened him with his tremendous noiſe. Within a ſhort time, by a little attention, he turned the notes of this frightful animal into notes of joy. At this time there was a company of ſoldiers quartered at Crediton, a town about a mile from Hilion. His uncle took him there frequently, and one day attending the roll call, he appeared to be greatly delighted with the fifes, but not content with hearing them, he borrowed one, and very ſoon picked out ſeveral tunes, and played them decently. After this he gathered a quantity of what the country people call biller; it is tubular, grows in marſhy grounds; with the biller he made ſeveral imitations of this inſtrument, and ſold them to his playfellows. When between four and five years of age, his ear was ſo very correct that he could play any eaſy tune after once or twice hearing it. Before he was quite ſix years old, a neighbouring ſmith, into whoſe houſe he uſed frequently to run, loſt between twenty and thirty horſe-ſhoes; diligent ſearch was made after them for many days, but to no purpoſe. Soon after the ſmith heard ſome muſical ſounds, which ſeemed to come from the upper part of the houſe; and having liſtened a ſufficient time to be convinced, that his ears did not deceive him, he went up ſtairs, where he diſcovered the young muſician and his property between the ceiling of the garret and the thatched roof. He had ſelected eight horſe-ſhoes, out of more than twenty, to form a complete octave, had ſuſpended each of them by a ſingle cord, clear from the wall and with a ſmall iron rod was amuſing himſelf by imitating Crediton chimes, which he did with great exactneſs. This ſtory being made public, and his genius for muſic increaſing hourly, a neighbouring clergyman of conſiderable rank in the church, who patronized him, ſhewed him a harpſichord, which he ſoon got a familiar acquaintance with;

with; and by his intuitive genius was ſoon able to play any eaſy leſſon which came in his way: he applied himſelf likewiſe to the violin, and found but few difficulties to ſurmount in his progreſs on that inſtrument. When eleven years old, he was introduced to me, by his patron; I ſet him down to the piano-forte, and ſoon perceiving that the ſeeds of muſic were ſown in a rich ſoil, I recommended his friends to place him with ſome cathedral organiſt, under whom he might have free acceſs to a good inſtrument, and get ſome knowledge of the rules of compoſition. Mr. Jackſon, organiſt of Exeter cathedral, was ſome time after applied to, who conſented to take him, and he was articled to him, when he was about twelve years of age.

His progreſs in church-muſic was hardly credible, and in his voluntaries his invention is not to be deſcribed. He has ever ſince continued to improve, and is at this time a moſt excellent performer on the organ; plays a very good violin, viole, and violoncello, and has compoſed ſome vocal quartets, which are eſteemed elegant by the firſt profeſſors in London, and certainly diſcover conſiderable muſical knowledge. He now reſides in Exeter, and follows his profeſſion.

Account of the Yellow Fever that lately prevailed at Philadelphia.

So many different opinions have prevailed reſpecting the origin of this fever, as well as of its ſymptoms and medical treatment, that, at this moment, conjecture is nearly as vague as when the relation of the prevalence of the diſeaſe was firſt communicated.

In any ſudden cataſtrophe, or ſtrange phænomenon, the mind is apt to adduce the firſt obvious cauſe to explain an effect. The Philadelphians, inexperienced in the calamities of peſtilence, and agitated by its rapidity, aſcribed what was ſo deeply felt within themſelves to ſome circumſtance immediately within their own contemplation: and they, for a *nouvelle* diſeaſe, ſearching for a *nouvelle* cauſe, the French refugees from St. Domingo, who amounted to about 10,000 perſons within the limits of Philadelphia, were reſorted to in the preſent dilemma; at the ſame time, theſe very people, except the youth, were the healthieſt reſidents in the city, ſcarcely excluding the negroes, who braved infection almoſt with impunity. The Philadelphians had but juſt aſſumed the language of inveſtigation, before they ſaw the futility of aſcribing an effect to a cauſe that only exiſted in conjecture: they relinquiſhed the emigrants of Hiſpaniola for damaged coffee, putrid vegetables, and other ſources equally futile. I exculpate the affrighted Americans; they were, and are at this moment I believe ignorant of the origin, and early progreſs, of this infectious diſeaſe, and naturally ſought for cauſes within their immediate inveſtigation. Its origin I preſume to explain, not ſo much with a view to gratify curioſity as, by a detail of its rapid extenſion in a climate parallel with our own, to excite that alarm, which may inſpire precaution, and produce means of prevention. In the following detail, I may not be perfectly accurate as to dates within a day or two; but I truſt this will not invalidate the general accuracy of the following relation.

About two years ago, a number of perſons of the ſiſter kingdom, and chiefly inhabitants of London, among whom a ſpirit of enterprize is prevalent, adopted the ſcheme of forming a ſettlement on the uncultivated iſland of Bulam, off the continent of Africa. They embarked without the ſuitable requiſites for the occaſion, without poſſeſſing the leaſt claim to the place of their deſtined inheritance. Various diſtreſſes ſupervened after arrival, and ſickneſs ſoon diſſipated their hopes, and thinned their numbers; and, to augment calamities, the Africans, reſenting this encroachment upon their territories, attacked the improvident invaders. Some got to Sierra Leona; the remnant purchaſed the precarious liberty of ſettlement. With ruined fortunes, and diſappointed projects, this miſerable remnant at length ſailed from this ſeat of diſeaſe and famine in the Hankey, captain Cox, to Grenada. The veſſel arrived off Grenada about the middle of February, and

and anchored at ſome diſtance from the tier of ſhipping. At this period there was no prevailing diſeaſe among any of the ſhipping, or upon the whole iſland of Grenada. In a few days the Hankey was brought nearer into land, and moored in the tier of merchantmen. On the very next day, a ſailor in the next ſhip adjoining the Hankey ſhewed ſymptoms of fever; and ſoon after many others were attacked in a ſimilar manner; and, early in April, a conſiderable part of the white inhabitants of Grenada laboured under the diſeaſe, and by the end of Auguſt one half of the whole inhabitants fell victims to it.

Moſt of the miſerable paſſengers from Bulam died in the courſe of the voyage. The ſurvivors not only came aſhore, but the cloaths of the diſeaſed paſſengers were actually landed. It was, indeed, early obſerved, that ſo great was the mortality among thoſe who viſited the Hankey, at length none but negroes, who were very little liable to this fever, adminiſtered to the neceſſities of the ſhip; for, the original crew was nearly extinct.

From Grenada it viſited Tobago, where it was more fatal than at the former iſland, and ſome time afterwards it appeared at Antigua, and likewiſe at St. Kitts. In this hiſtory of the progreſs of diſeaſe, it is certain, that theſe iſlands were infected before the diſeaſe was noticed in Philadelphia, as will be farther proved.

Antigua, although one of a cluſter of about 60 iſlands, is, I believe, void, or nearly ſo, of any ſprings of water: it is peculiarly dry, and depends upon the clouds for the ſupply of this eſſential fluid, which is preſerved in caſks or tanks for domeſtic uſe. Here, however, the diſeaſe was not leſs fatal than at Grenada, both among the inhabitants and the ſeamen. Wherever the diſeaſe appeared, it ſpread rapidly, whether the iſland was low or high, moiſt or dry; and not only ſo, but among ſeamen unconnected with the land; a remarkable inſtance of which occurred in the Experiment man of war, off Engliſh harbour in Antigua. Not having her complement of guns, ſhe, at this time, only had 100 ſeamen on board, all in health. In making the harbour, ſhe driſted ſo much, that captain Kelly, then in port, ſent off his long boat to her aſſiſtance The next day one of the Experiment's men was attacked with this fever, and on the ſucceeding day another. This alarmed the commanding officer, who, deeming the ſea air might prove more ſalubrious, and ſtop the progreſs of the infection, put off to ſea: in vain, however, was this apparently judicious conduct; before a week was elapſed, he returned, with extreme difficulty, from the ſickneſs of his crew, to the Engliſh harbour, whence he drew the original poiſon.

It is evident, from the beſt information, conveyed by numerous letters from Philadelphia, and from the accurate publication of Matthew Carey, one of the ſurviving committee men of this city, that the appearance of this infectious diſeaſe was ſome months after the arrival of the Hankey at Grenada; for Dr. Hodges' child was the firſt victim of it at Philadelphia, and he was attacked on the 26th or 27th of July, and died on the 5th of Auguſt.

The only French ſhip which the Americans ſuſpected of infection was, the privateer Sans Culottes Marſellois, with her prize the Flora, which arrived at Philadelphia the 22d of July. A few days prior, arrived a veſſel from Tobago, which had loſt nearly all her hands by a malignant fever. In the river ſhe ſhipped freſh hands, many of whom died. From this ſhip the Americans received the fatal poiſon.

From the relations hitherto communicated to us, the diſeaſe tranſplanted from Bulam to Grenada was eſſentially the ſame as that likewiſe ſo fatal at Philadelphia. The yellow tinge of the ſkin, the ſymptoms and event, and the ſameneſs of the victims, all combine to convey this conviction. The unhappy Frenchmen, driven from St. Domingo, and inhabiting a part of Philadelphia analogous to our Wapping, were next to the Negroes moſt exempt from this very diſeaſe, which they have been falſely accuſed of propagating. The negroes of the Engliſh Weſt-India iſlands, like thoſe of the American continent, marched through the infected

ranks almoſt with impunity. The iſland of Hiſpaniola, and I believe every other French iſland, has eſcaped the ravages of this febrile poiſon; and hence, from every conſideration, I am bold to conclude, that with neither Frenchmen nor Americans did it originate, but from Engliſhmen alone, driven from the impure iſland of Bulam, in the manner, and under the circumſtances, I have already ſtated.

It is unneceſſary here to advert to the inceſſant intercourſe between the little American barks, and all the Antilles; they cover this part of the Atlantic ocean, in carrying flour, ſtaves, cattle, and proviſions, to every key and creek.

It is remarkable, that although (and I ſpeak it upon indubitable authority) one half of the whites of Grenada and Tobago have died, we have heard leſs rumour or alarm about this dreadful fatality in our own colonies, than from America. It may perhaps be owing to various circumſtances: although this fever has been certainly different in ſome reſpects from the common yellow fever of the Weſt Indies, yet at the ſame time that there exiſted much analogy, leſs wonder and terror would be excited in theſe iſlands than on the continent, where its novelty and fatality muſt be terrible to the imagination: and ſo it proved; for, without doubt, many were deſerted, the moment diſeaſe appeared, as victims not only of certain death, but of deadly contagion.

The fleet which loads in the Weſt Indies, eſpecially in time of war, when under convoy, ſeldom arrives in Europe till Midſummer, ſo that the full relation from the iſlands is ſometimes anticipated by arrivals from the American continent. Theſe circumſtances, and the greater frequency of ſickneſs and fatality, in the Weſt Indies, and conſequently leſs agitation, on the preſent event, may have occaſioned the comparative ſilence from a quarter where the deaths have been really proportionally higher than on the continent.

It has been noticed, that the ſymptoms and fatality were ſo ſimilar as to authenticate the ſameneſs and infection. We have not been favoured with many diſſections of the victims of it. Dr. Phyſick, and another medical gentleman, mentions the ſtomach, as exhibiting the moſt obvious marks of diſeaſe, this viſcus being very much inflamed, and particularly the Cardia. The ſubſtance of the liver did not appear much diſeaſed, but the gall-bladder was greatly diſtended, and the acrimony of the bile ſo violent as to excoriate the ſkin wherever it came in contact.

The diſſections in the Weſt Indies ſpeak chiefly of the turgeſcence of the liver and gall-bladder, and mention its acrimony leſs conſiderable, but in great meaſure exonerate the ſtomach from any primary infection; ſo that probably the inflammation of this viſcus, as it appeared in Philadelphia, might ariſe from the acrimony of the bile, and the efforts and action in vomiting.

As to the treatment of the diſeaſe, the phyſicians in Philadelphia as widely differ as the antiphlogiſtic and cordial treatments.

Some phyſicians, who are ſaid to have been very ſucceſsful, gave opium, antimony, and calomel, to act upon the ſkin; but whether any beneficial effect would be derived from mercury, in an acute ſtate of diſeaſe, is not aſcertained, though ſweating from the above combination might ſeem ſalutary.

Profeſſor Kuhn informs me by letter, that when he had been conſulted, within 24 hours from the attack, he found bark, wine, and cordials, in general ſucceſsful; but that, if his mode of treatment was not adopted by the 4th day, his patients uniformly died.

The accounts from the Weſt Indies prove, that evacuations upwards and downwards, with diluting nutrition and fluids, were moſt ſalutary; venæſection was however avoided.

Captain Simes aſſured me, that, whilſt his veſſel lay off Grenada, 17 of his crew, out of 28 infected, recovered by this treatment; and I had ſimilar information by a gentleman from Antigua, who left that iſland in November laſt, when the diſeaſe was ſtill prevalent.

I enquired particularly, whether free drinkers were leſs liable to the diſeaſe: but here no certainty could be aſcertained, as ſeveral inſtances were recollected,

lected, in families and lodging-houſes, in which the fatality was frequently greater among the intemperate; and on the other hand, where theſe almoſt alone eſcaped.

All agreed that ſtrangers, and thoſe young particularly, were more liable to catch this fever, except among the French in Philadelphia; who, although ſtrangers in this continent were, naturalized to the Weſt-India climate.

MEDICUS HIBERNICUS.

An Eſſay on the Invention of Printing.

ABDALLAH's Chineſe Hiſtory, 1317, mentions wooden tablets engraven to print entire pages. Trigault aſſerts, that the Chineſe practiſed the art of printing five centuries before his time. Count Terre Rezzonico found at Lyons plates with words and names engraven by a Nuremberger, 1380. The Chineſe way of ſtamping a whole page with one entire block, Coſtar uſed at Harlem, about the year 1430. He uſed ſingle types of wood before the year 1440; when theſe characters were ſpirited away to Mentz, either directly or by degrees; probably by the elder Genfleiſch; who, with his brother John Gutenberg, cut metalline types under the patronage of John Fauſt, whoſe ſon-in-law Scheffer caſted types. Coſtar's earlieſt known impreſſions were a book of eight pages, containing, an Alphabet; the Lord's Prayer; and three other Prayers, a little Catholicon or Vocabulary; Confeſſionals. Donatus printed before 1440. Add, probably, the Art of Memory; and a Treatiſe of Antichriſt; both with Figures. Likewiſe Chriſt's Hiſtory, and the Speculum Salutis, kept in a ſilver cheſt at Harlem. That, in Dutch, has (like the Donatus) capitals; ſee Meerman. The Latin Speculum (at Wilton) was partly printed with fixed types, partly with moveable. John Naucler and Olric Zell, who printed at Cologn, 1467, the book De Singularitate Clericorum, now at Blenheim Houſe: and the Bible, 1458, in Daly's late collection, wrote that "printing was invented at Mentz 1440, and improved till 1450, when a Latin Bible was printed; yet the Donatus at Harlem led the way." The Latin Bible was printed, with cut metalline types, at Mentz 1450. The Chronicon of Mat. Palmer, of Piſa, (born 1423) aſſerts that printing was invented 1440, and generally propagated 1457. Seiz tells us, that "John Baptiſt Fulgoſius Dux Ianuenſium 1487 dixit, Literar' imprimendar' Artem 1440 inventam." That Laurence Coſtar, 1436, cut ſingle letters of lead; and, 1438, invented a method of caſting leaden types; and printed the Dutch Speculum, alſo Donatus. Gutenberg printed an alphabet; alſo Alexandri Galli de Villa Dei Doctrinale ſive Grammaticam, and Petri Hiſpani Logicalia, with wooden types, 1442. Gutenberg and Mentel, 1446, printed Biblia Latina. An edition of the Bible by Fauſt's Artiſts appeared 1462, price five marks; ſee Fenn's Letters. Peter Scheffer, 1452, Matrices formandi Artem excogitavit. The Pſalms were printed, by Fauſt at Mentz, with the date 1457; but many of the earlieſt books were not dated. He printed the Officiale Durandi with caſt types 1459. The Clementine conſtitutions are at Newſtift in Tyrol, 1460. At an eminent London bookſeller's in Fleet-ſtreet, was on ſale, Dec. 1790, the Latin Lexicon, ſtyled Johannis de Junuâ Summa, Catholicon dicta, impreſſa Moguntiæ 1460. Peterſheim printed at Francfort, 1459; when Bourcher, archbiſhop of Canterbury, introduced the art into England. Mariangel Accurſius ſaw with Aldus a Donatus by Fauſt, printed with copper types, (ſays Fabricius) in 1450; as was the Confeſſional. Accurſius wrote thus: Joh. Fauſt et Joh. Schæffer admonini ex Donato Hollandiæ prius impreſſo Donatum et Confeſſionalia 1450 imprimebant. The Chronicon of Cologn, printed 1490, informs us, "the art of printing was cultivated at Mentz, on the Rhine, from the year 1440." But although the preſent method was invented there, yet the ſample of printing, was obtained from the Dutch editions of Donatus. Polydore Virgil wrote thus. Joh. Gutenberg Teutonicus, equeſtri vir dignitate,

ut ab ejus civibus accepimus, primus omniu' in Monguntio Germaniæ oppido imprimendar' Literar' artem excogitavit; decimo ſexto deinc anno (qui fuit A. Sal. 1458). Couradus, homo itidem Germanus, arte in Italia' attulit. Hadrian Junius mentions printing at Mentz, 1442; but with Coſtar's types. Caxton, (as Meerman notes) 1482, ſet the invention of the art in 1455; about that time indeed it became public and general; as Palmer of Piſa, Polydore Virgil, and Werner's Faſciculus Tempor' evince. It enſued on the ſeparation of Fauſt's Artiſts. But John Mentel exerciſed the art at Straſburg about 1444. Wimpheling (who died in 1528) ſays, that Gutenberg had an imperfect knowledge of printing at Straſburg; though Peter Scheffer's ſon John aſſerts, that "Gutenberg invented (rather founded) printing at Mentz, 1450; where his father and John Fauſt improved it. Elſewhere he explains this of types. John Scott, 1531, attributes the invention to John Mentel 1444. And Spiegel, the emperor Maximilian's ſecretary, wrote that, John Mentel, at Straſburg, in the year 1444 invented the art of printing; ſee Seiz. About the year 1458, both Gutenburg and Mentel could ſtamp 300 ſheets daily. But I think that Gutenberg's eldeſt brother was a workman with Coſtar, and fled to his brother at Straſburg, but afterwards repaired to Mentz. This accounts for the reports that the art was brought from Straſburg thither. How elſe could Gutenberg, who reſided at Straſburg from 1434 to 1444, learn the art from his elder brother? except, indeed, he viſited him at Harlem, or both brothers ſerved Coſtar, and about 1434, removed with the types firſt to Straſburg; for Seiz quotes an old manuſcript, that ſays, they reſided there 1444; whence the eldeſt brother retired to Mentz about 1440? John Dun, a goldſmith, atteſted that he ſold to Gutenberg articles uſeful in printing about 1436. Thus at Harlem were invented wooden types, both fixed and moveable, about 1430; cut ſingle letters of lead, about 1436; and caſt leaden types about 1438. Gutenberg introduced the art at Straſburg about 1436. His elder brother at Mentz about 1440; he printed under Fauſt's auſpices in 1442. Afterwards Gutenberg came thither; and metalline types were cut for the Bible 1450; and uſed for the Pſalter 1457; when the art as aforeſaid became general. Scheffer, Fauſt's ſon-in-law, invented, or at leaſt improved, caſt types; with which Durandus was printed 1459. Therefore, conſidering the early account of printing at Straſburg, given by Scott and Spiegel, and that the book De Miſeria Lotharii was dated 1448, why doth Blainville (who recites an epigram dated 1454, attributing the invention of printing to Germany) ſuſpect, after Miſſon, the date of the book on Predeſtination at Spire, which is 1446; the date of my Leonard de Utino; a book whoſe type greatly reſembles the ſpecimens of Mentel's preſs, in Meerman; and bears every mark of a moſt antient performance in that art. The large introductory capitals are not printed. Neither pages nor folios are numbered, even though there is a table referring to the folios. The ſheets have no marks; nor are there any catch words, or *cuſtodes*, at the bottom of the page; the ſmall capitals are in a very ſimple ſtyle. The letters are of unequal ſize; and the lines are uneven. The ſentences have no diſtinguiſhing marks except quadrangular points. No labels adorn the heads of the pages, as in the Nuremberg Chronicle, 1493. It is probable, a religious ſociety would have embraced the earlieſt opportunity to honour a member of their own body by committing his book to the newly-invented preſs, which muſt have been much admired as ſoon as underſtood. Therefore Leonard's work appears as old as its date, maugre any opinionated Frenchman's poſitive *ipſe dixit* to the contrary. The admirable Tully afforded a plain hint towards the invention; where (on the Nature of the gods) he ſpeaks of collecting and arranging a great number of ſeparate letters; which, ſays he, could never fortuitouſly compoſe any intelligible or coherent treatiſe.

W. Williams.

Tour

Tour through Holland, &c.

(Continued from page 7.)

MY laſt letter concluded with an account of my arrival at Delft. I now proceed to communicate to you the obſervations which occurred to me in that place.

Delft, which is famous for manufacturing the ware known by that name, is a large town, and is ſaid to contain upwards of twenty thouſand inhabitants. The ſtreets are, in general, elegant and ſpacious; eſpecially the two principal ſtreets, which extend, in parallel directions, the whole length of the town; and they are adorned with canals, bridges, and rows of trees, which had an effect upon me as novel as it was pleaſing.

I roſe early in the morning to look about me. I firſt walked to the market-place; a grand ſquare, in which the town houſe and the new church ſtand oppoſite to each other. The former is an old and magnificent building, and has the following very ſuitable inſcription:

Hic locus odit, amat, punit, conſervat, honorat,
Nequitiam, pacem, crimine, jura, propos.

The church is a large ſtructure, with a fine lofty ſpire; and very harmonious chimes, which announce the lapſe of every quarter of an hour. I had no introduction to any perſon in this place; and I longed for a *vade mecum* who could gratify my curioſity. I took the liberty to aſk queſtions of different people, alternately, in Engliſh and French; to which I obtained no anſwers except a ſhake of the head or a "nay, Mynheer." While I ſat at breakfaſt, lamenting my ignorance of the Dutch language, one of the waiters, after ſeveral painful efforts in broken Engliſh, gave me to underſtand that there was an Engliſh tradeſman, of the name of Webb, ſettled in the town. I was delighted with this intelligence, and deſired to be immediately conducted to his houſe, I found him a civil and a well informed man. He told me that he was a native of Oxfordſhire; that, in his younger days, he had travelled through a great part of Europe in the ſuite of ſir —— Stapleton; that he was now 73 years of age, and had reſided in Holland upwards of forty years. He had been married to a Dutch woman, who died ſome years ago. He had two daughters, who lived with him, ſedate, ſenſible women, who although born and educated in Delft, ſpoke Engliſh tolerably well. The old man ſtood on tip-toe when we talked of England, and it was evident that neither abſence nor length of time had diminiſhed his fond partiality to the land which had given him birth. Mr. Webb kindly offered to ſhew me the curioſities of the place. I was firſt conducted to the new church, where I ſaw the grand mauſoleum of the houſe of Orange, which was erected, in 1609, at the expence of the States General. It is raiſed upon the ſpot where formerly ſtood the high altar, and exhibits an honourable teſtimony of national gratitude. The inſcription upon the tomb of William the 1ſt, prince of Orange, is as follows:

D. O. M.

Et eternæ memoriæ Gulielmi Naſſovii, Supremi Arauſioneſium Principis: —Patris Patriæ, qui Belgii fortunis ſuas poſthabuit et ſuorum, validiſſimos exercitus ære plurimum privato bis conſcripſit, bis induxit ordinum auſpiciis: Hiſpaniæ tyrannidem propulit, veræ religionis cultum, avitas patriæ leges revocavit, reſtituit, ipſam denique libertatem tantum non aſſertam Mauritio Princi, Paternæ virtutis hæredi filio, ſtabiliendam reliquit. Fœderat. Belg. Provinc. perenni meritor. monum. P. C. C. Herois verè pii, prudentis, invicti; quem Philippus ſecundus Hiſp. rex, Europæ timor, timuit non domuit, non terruit, ſed, emto percuſſore, fraude nefanda ſuſtulit.

The words "Aurea Libertas" are conſpicuous on the front of this noble monument; and while I gazed on them with rapture, they ſuggeſted to my mind

mind the following beautiful apoſtrophe in Addiſon's letter from Italy:

O liberty, thou goddeſs heavenly bright,
Profuſe of bliſs and pregnant with delight,
Eternal pleaſures in thy preſence reign,
And ſmiling plenty leads thy wanton train.
Eas'd of her load, ſubjection grows more light,
And poverty looks chearful in the ſight:
Thou mak'ſt the gloomy face of nature gay,
Giv'ſt beauty to the ſun, and pleaſure to the day:
Thee, goddeſs, thee Britannia's iſle adores;
How oft has ſhe exhauſted all her ſtores!
How oft in fields of death thy preſence bought!
Nor thinks the mighty prize too dearly fought!

The columns which adorn this monument are of marble, and there are four figures in bronze which repreſent the cardinal virtues.

There are two ſtatues of William the Firſt; one in marble upon the tomb, and the other at the foot armed cap à pié. The place where the ball, that occaſioned his death went through, is marked below the left ſhoulder; and there is a repreſentation in black marble of the Prince's favourite little dog, which is ſaid never to have taſted food after his maſter's death. The tomb is ſurmounted by a brazen ſtatue of Fame, holding two trumpets, with the following motto, "Te vindice, tuta "Libertas." This figure, which is of great weight, ſtands poiſed upon one foot. The whole workmanſhip is much admired by connoiſſeurs; and ſome have made no ſcruple to place it above any thing which even Italy hath produced in the ſame ſtyle. Here alſo are to be ſeen repreſentations of the two ſons of William,—— Maurice and Frederic-Henry;—the latter of whom was born in this town.

William the Firſt was a great man in the true ſenſe of that word; and the eminent ſervices which he rendered to this country, ought to endear the name of Orange for ever to the people. I ſurveyed the ſpot where his aſhes are depoſited, with that veneration which is due to the memory of a hero, who appears to have always acted on the pureſt and moſt diſintereſted principles of patriotiſm; a term, which hath been ſhamefully proſtituted by the corruption of modern times. He was the devoted victim of tyranny and ſuperſtition united; and he fell a martyr to the nobleſt cauſe in which a human being can engage, the defence of civil and religious freedom: the name of the tyrant by whoſe inſtigation he was baſely aſſaſſinated, is only remembered to be execrated, while that of the prince of Orange will live in the hearts of the lateſt generation of free men, as having acquired the nobleſt of all titles, the deliverer of his country, the founder of its liberty and glory.

The immortal Grotius, who hath enlightened the world by his writings in defence of the Chriſtian religion, and upon juriſprudence, was a native of Delft. His remains were depoſited in this church, and the following inſcription appears upon his monument:

Hugoni Grotio
Sacrum.
Prodigium Europæ, docti ſtupor unicus orbis,
Naturæ auguſtum ſe ſuperantis opus,
Ingenii celeſtis apex, virtutis imago,
Celſius humana conditione decus;
Cui peperit Libani lectas de vertice cedros
Defenſus veræ religionis honor;
Quem laurus Mavors, Pallas decoravit oliva,
Quum bello et paci publica jura daret;
Quem Tameſis Batavæ miraclum et Sequana terræ
Vidit et adſervit Sueonis aula ſibi:
Grotius hic ſitus eſt, Tumulo diſcedite quos non
Muſarum et Patriæ ſervidus urit amor.
Petrus Burmannus Secundus.

In the firſt volume of Le Clerc's "Bibliotheque Univerſelle," I find the following epitaph on Grotius, ſaid to have been written by himſelf.

Grotius hic Hugo eſt, Batavum captivus et exul,
Legatus regni, Suedia Magna, tui.

The

The walls were full of atchievements: the predominent colour was black, which gave the church a gloomy appearance. Inſtead of pews, the nave was full of ruſh-bottomed chairs, numbered on the back. I ſhould prefer plain benches, in the ſtyle of the Quaker meeting houſes, either to pews or chairs. A decent-looking man ſtood at the door with a box in his hand; and I was told that a few ſtivers dropped into that box, for the benefit of the poor, would be conſidered as a ſufficient remuneration for the trouble I had given. On coming out of the church into the grand ſquare, I ſaw two men parading the ſtreets, with much ſolemnity in their looks, dreſſed in black, with ſcarves and bands. I took them for clergymen; but my kind conductor informed me that they were undertakers, and that one part of their office was to announce, from houſe to houſe, the death of every perſon of note. The ſame cuſtom prevails throughout Holland: and I muſt allow, that ſuch of the undertakers as I have ſeen engaged in that buſineſs, had acquired the art of looking very diſmally. They would have formed a groupe of admirable mutes in Sir Richard Steele's witty comedy, entitled, "The Funeral, or Grief á-la-Mode.' I was ſtruck with the ceremonious politeneſs with which people met in the ſtreets; the approach was formal; and, not contented with juſt touching their hats *à-la mode Angliſe*, they took them off, and kept waving them in their hands till they had quite paſſed each other; a ceremony which I thought no leſs inſipid than troubleſome. I have ſome farther particulars to communicate reſpecting Delſt, which will form the ſubject of my next letter.

Account of the Dreſs of the Japaneſe.

(From Thunberg's Travels.)

THE dreſs of the Japaneſe deſerves more than any where elſe in the world the name of national; as it not only differs from that of any other nation, but at the ſame time is uniform, from the monarch down to the moſt inferior ſubject, ſimilar in both ſexes, and (which almoſt ſurpaſſes belief) has been unchanged for the ſpace of two thouſand five hundred years.

It conſiſts every where of long and wide night-gowns, one or more of which are worn by people of every age and condition in life. The rich have them of the fineſt ſilk, and the poor of cotton. The women wear them reaching down to their feet, and the women of quality frequently with a train. Thoſe of the men come down to their heels; but travellers, together with ſoldiers and labouring people, either tuck them up or wear them ſo ſhort that they only reach to their knees. The men generally have them made of a plain ſilk of one colour, but the ſilken ſtuffs worn by the women are flowered, and ſometimes interwoven with gold flowers. In the ſummer, they are either without any lining at all, or elſe with a thin lining only; in winter, by way of defence againſt the cold weather, they are quilted with cotton or ſilk-wadd. The men ſeldom wear many of them, but the women often from thirty to fifty, or more, and all ſo thin, that together they hardly weigh more than four or five pounds. The undermoſt of them ſerves for a ſhirt, and therefore is either white or bluiſh, and for the moſt part thin and tranſparent. All theſe night-gowns are faſtened about the waſte by a belt, which for the men is about the breadth of a hand, and for the women of about twelve inches, and of ſuch a length as to go twice round the body, with a large knot and roſe. The knot worn by the fair ſex, which is larger than that worn by the men, ſhews immediately whether the woman is married or not; as the married women wear the knot before, and the ſingle behind. The men faſten to this belt their ſabre, fan, tobacco-pipe, and pouch and medicine box. The gowns are rounded off about the neck, without a cape, open before, and ſhew the bare boſom, which is never covered either with a handkerchief or any thing elſe. The ſleeves are always ill-ſhaped, and much wider than they ought to be, and ſewed together half way down in front, ſo as to form a bag at bottom, into which they

they put their hands in cold weather, or uſe it as a pocket to hold their papers and other things. Young girls, in particular, have the ſleeves of their gowns ſo long as frequently to reach quite down to the ground.

On account of the great width of their garments, they are ſoon dreſſed and undreſſed, as they have nothing more to do than untie their girdle, and draw in their arms, when the whole of their dreſs inſtantly falls off of itſelf. So that long and wide night-gowns univerſally form the dreſs of the Japaneſe nation, though in this point ſome variation takes place with regard to ſex, age, condition, and way of life. Thus one frequently ſees the common people, ſuch as labourers, fiſhermen, and ſailors, either undreſſed, when they are at their work, with their night-gowns taken off from the upper part of their bodies, and hanging down looſe from their girdles, or elſe quite naked, having round their body a girdle only, which wrapping round and covering the parts that decency requires to be concealed, is carried backwards between the thighs to be faſtened to the back.

Men of a higher rank in life, have, beſides theſe long night-gowns, a ſhort half-gown, which is worn over the other, and is made of ſome thin kind of ſtuff, ſuch as gauze. It is like the former at the ſleeves and neck, but reaches only to the waiſt, and is not faſtened with a girdle, but is tied before, and at the top with a ſtring. This half-gown is ſometimes of a green, but moſt frequently of a black colour. When they come home to their houſes, or to their reſpective offices, where there are none ſuperior to them, they take off this outer garment, and, folding it carefully up, lay it by.

The breeches are of a peculiar kind of ſtuff, which is thin indeed, but at the ſame time very cloſe and compact; and made neither of ſilk nor of cotton, but of a ſpecies of hemp. They are more like a petticoat than breeches; being ſewed between the legs, and left open at the ſides to about two thirds of their length. They reach down to their ancles, and are faſtened about the waiſt with a band, which is carried round the body from before and from behind. At the back part of theſe breeches is a thin triangular piece of board, ſcarcely ſix inches long, which is covered with the ſame ſtuff as the breeches, and ſtands up againſt the back juſt above the band. The breeches are either ſtriped with brown or green, or elſe uniformly black. I have ſometimes ſeen them made of ſuccotas, a ſtuff from Bengal. Drawers are ſeldom uſed but on journies, and by ſoldiers, who wear ſhort and tucked up night-gowns, that they may walk or run with the greater ſpeed.

The complimentary dreſs as a ſort of holiday dreſs, as called in Japan, is uſed only on ſolemn occaſions, and when people of an inferior rank pay homage to their ſuperiors, or by ſuch as are going to court. Such a dreſs is worn on the outſide of all, over the gowns, that form the whole of this people's uſual dreſs. It conſiſts of two pieces made of one and the ſame kind of ſtuff. The undermoſt piece is the above deſcribed breeches, which are generally made of a blue ſtuff, printed with white flowers. The uppermoſt piece, which particularly diſtinguiſhes this dreſs, is a frock, not unlike the half night-gown already ſpoken of, but is carried on each ſide back over the ſhoulders, by which means the Japaneſe have the appearance of being very broad ſhouldered.

All their cloaths are made either of ſilk, cotton, or of a kind of linen manufactured from certain ſpecies of nettles. The better ſort of people wear the fineſt ſilks, which in fineneſs and tenuity far exceed every thing produced either in India or Europe; but as theſe ſilks are not above twelve inches broad, they are not carried to Europe for ſale. The common people wear cotton, which is found here in great abundance. Sometimes, but merely as a matter of curioſity, the Japaneſe make of the bark of the morus papyrifera, a kind of cloth, which is either manufactured like paper, or elſe ſpun and woven. The latter ſort, which is quite white and fine, and reſembles cotton, is ſometimes uſed by the women. The former, printed with flowers, is uſed for the

the long night-gowns by elderly people only, and is worn by them at no other time than in the winter, when they perſpire but little, and then with a gown or two beſides.

As the night-gowns reach down to the feet, and conſequently keep the thighs and legs warm, ſtockings are neither wanted nor uſed throughout the whole country. One ſees the common people, however, when travelling, and ſoldiers, who have not ſuch long night-gowns, wear ſpatter-daſhes made of cotton-ſtuff. I obſerved that ſome people near Nagaſaki wore alſo hempen ſocks, with the ſoles of cotton ſtuff, which they uſed in the ſevereſt winter months, to preſerve the feet from cold. They are tied faſt about the ancle, and have a ſeparate place made for the great toe to enter, and adapted to the form of the ſhoe.

The ſhoes, or to ſpeak more properly, ſlippers, of the Japaneſe, are the moſt ſhabby and indifferent part of their dreſs, and are yet in equal uſe with the high and the low, the rich and the poor. They are made of rice-ſtraw woven, but ſometimes for people of diſtinction of fine ſlips of ratan. The ſhoe conſiſts of a ſole, without upper leather or hind piece; forwards it is croſſed by a ſtrap, of the thickneſs of one's finger, which is lined with linen; from the tip of the ſhoe to this ſtrap, a cylindrical ſtring is carried, which paſſes between the great and ſecond toe, and keeps the ſhoe faſt on the foot. As theſe ſhoes have no hind piece, they make a noiſe when people walk in them, like ſlippers. When the Japaneſe travel, their ſhoes are furniſhed with three ſtrings made of twiſted ſtraw, with which they are tied to the legs and feet, to prevent them from falling off. Some people carry one or more pair of ſhoes, with them on their journeys, in order to put on new, when the old ones are worn out. When it rains or the roads are very dirty, theſe ſhoes are ſoon wetted through, and one continually ſees a great number of worn out ſhoes lying on the roads, eſpecially near the brooks, where travellers have changed their ſhoes after waſhing their feet. Inſtead of theſe, in rainy or dirty weather, they wear high wooden clogs, which underneath are hollowed out in the middle, and at top have a band acroſs like a ſtirrup, and a ſtring for the great toe; ſo that they can walk without ſoiling their feet. Some of them have their ſtraw ſhoes faſtened to theſe wooden clogs. The Japaneſe never enter their houſes with their ſhoes on; but leave them in the entry, or place them on the bench near the door, and thus are always bare-footed in their houſes, ſo as not to dirty their neat mats. During the time that the Dutch live at Japan, when they are ſometimes under an obligation of paying viſits at the houſes of the Japaneſe, their own rooms at the factory being likewiſe covered with mats of this kind, they wear, inſtead of the uſual ſhoes, red, green, or black ſlippers, which, on entering the houſe, they pull off; however, they have ſtockings on, and ſhoes made of cotton ſtuff, with buckles in them, which ſhoes are made at Japan, and can be waſhed whenever they are dirty; ſome have them of black ſattin, in order to avoid waſhing them.

This people's mode of dreſſing their hair is as peculiar to them, and at the ſame time as general amongſt them, as their uſe of the night-gowns. The men ſhave the whole of their head from the forehead down to the nape of the neck, and what is left near the temples and in the neck is well greaſed, turned up, and tied at the top of the head with ſeveral rounds of white ſtring, made of paper. The end of the hair, that remains above the tie, is cut off to about the length of one's finger, and after being well-ſtiffened with oil, bent in ſuch a manner, that the tip is brought to ſtand againſt the crown of the head, in which ſituation it is kept merely by the ſtring above-mentioned. This coeffure is ſtrictly attended to, and the head ſhaved every day, that the ſtumps of the growing hair may not diſfigure their bald pates. Prieſts and phyſicians, and young men that have not yet attained the age of maturity, are the only perſons that are exempted in this reſpect. The prieſts and phyſicians ſhave their heads all over, and are thus

diſcriminated from all others. Boys again keep all their hair on, till ſuch time as the beard begins to make its appearance.

Of the fair ſex, none have their hair cut off except women that are parted from their huſbands. I had an opportunity of ſeeing ſuch a one while I was at Jeddo, who traverſed the country much, and made, with her bald pate, a droll and ſingular appearance. Otherwiſe, the hair, well beſmeared, and made ſmooth with oil and mucilaginous ſubſtances, is put up cloſe to the head on all ſides, and this either quite in a neat and ſimple manner, or elſe ſtanding out at the ſides in the form of wings. After this the ends are faſtened together, round a knob, at the crown of the head. Single women and ſervant maids are frequently diſtinguiſhed from the married by theſe wings. Juſt before this knot a broad comb is ſtuck, which the poorer ſort of people wear of lacquered wood, and thoſe that are in better circumſtances of tortoiſe-ſhell. Beſides theſe, the rich wear ſeveral long ornaments, made of tortoiſe-ſhell, ſtuck through this knot, as alſo a few flowers, which ſerve inſtead of pearls and diamonds, and conſtitute the whole of their decorations. Vanity has not yet taken root among them to that degree, as to induce them to wear rings or other ornaments in their ears.

Theſe people never cover their heads either with hats or caps, to defend them againſt the cold or the ſcorching heat of the ſun, except on journies, when they wear a conical hat, made of a ſpecies of graſs and tied with a ſtring. I obſerved ſuch as theſe alſo were worn by fiſhermen. Some few travelling women wore caps in the form of a terrene, which were interwoven with gold. Otherwiſe the paraſol is what they uſe to ſhelter them againſt the rain or the rage of the ſun.

Beſides the above-mentioned drawers, ſpatter-daſhes, and hat, which none but travellers wear, they are generally provided on journeys with a cloak, eſpecially ſuch as travel on foot or on horſeback. Theſe cloaks are wide and ſhort, and of the ſame ſhape as the night-gowns. They are made of thick oiled paper, and are worn by the ſuperior attendants in the ſuite of princes, and of other travellers: and my fellow travellers and myſelf, during our journey to court, were obliged to make a preſent to our attendants of ſome of theſe cloaks, when we paſſed by the place where they were manufactured.

The Japaneſe always have their coat of arms put on their cloaks, particularly on their long and ſhort night-gowns, and that either on their arms or between their ſhoulders, with a view to prevent their being ſtolen, which in a country where people's cloaths are ſo much alike in point of materials, form, and ſize, might eaſily happen.

Inſtead of a handkerchief, I always ſaw them uſe thin and ſoft writing paper, which they conſtantly carried about them for this purpoſe, and which they alſo uſed for wiping their mouths and fingers, as likewiſe for wiping off the ſweat from their bodies under the armpits.

To the Editor of the Hibernian Magazine.

SIR,

A PERSON who intends to compoſe an account of the ancient and preſent ſtate of the city of Dublin, on a more perfect plan than any hitherto publiſhed, wiſhes to be informed of a few particulars relative thereto, through the channel of your magazine, which at the ſame time that the information may afford ſatisfaction to the inquirer, it may likewiſe be an acceptable entertainment to your curious readers.—He therefore requeſts ſome ſkilful antiquarians may inform him and the public of the following particulars, viz.

Anno 1610, by Speed's map it appears that the following churches exiſted in Dublin, viz.

St. Michan's,	St. Michael le Pole,
St. Catherin's,	St. Stephen's,
St. Audeon's, or Owen's,	St. Andrew's,
	St. Werburgh's,
St. Michael's,	St. Peter's,
St. Nicholas within,	St. John's,
St. Patrick's,	Chriſt Church,
St. Bride's.	

Query.

Query.—When was the church of St. Stephen ſuffered to fall? Was it a pariſh church?—if ſo to what pariſh is it now united, and when were the pariſhes united?—It ſtood where Mercer's Hoſpital now ſtands.

Part of the ruins of St. Michael Le Pole was ſtanding a few years ago near Ship-ſtreet.—Was it a pariſh church? to what pariſh was it united and when? When was the pariſh of St. James formed, and what are its preſent boundaries at the ſide of the country?—Has the incumbent any tithes, beſides the tax on the houſes in town?

When was the Chapel of St. Kevin founded in St. Peter's pariſh, and what are the boundaries of that pariſh in the country?—Does the pariſh of Mary Donnybrook lie in the city of Dublin: and whether the incumbent be maintained by tythes or a tax on houſes?

When was Anne's pariſh erected? when was the church erected, and at what time, and on what account was its elegant ſteeple taken down?

In 1697 St. Michan's pariſh was divided into three, viz. St. Michan, St. Paul, and St. Mary.—When was Thomas's pariſh formed.—Is the preſent church of St. Thomas the firſt? it was erected in 1762, yet the maps of Dublin of 1765 place it at the other ſide of the ſtreet, and very near Abbey-ſtreet.

Did George's chapel, before the erection of the new pariſh ſtand in Thomas's pariſh—When was it built, and on what foundation?

When was Luke's pariſh founded?—When was the church built?—Is any part of that pariſh in the city of Dublin?—Or is it all in the county?—How is the incumbent ſupported?

St. Mark's church was built in 1729, was that pariſh a part of St. Andrew's previous to that time?

In what pariſh do Ringſend and Iriſhtown lie?

If through the medium of your magazine, the above queries could be anſwered, it would afford much ſatisfaction to the inquirer, who ſhall then be ready to propoſe a few more.

X.

Anecdotes of Longevity.

To the Editor of the Hibernian Magazine.

SIR,

A courſe of very miſcellaneous reading led me a few years ſince to note the various inſtances of longevity which occurred to me. The inſtances which I then collected were ſoon after miſlaid, and as I imagined for ever loſt; but an accidental ſearch for other papers having once more preſented them to me, I thought it probable they might afford ſome entertainment to the readers of the Hibernian Magazine.

C. D.

THEY write from Dublin of the 12th inſtant, that on the Thurſday before (*i. e.* on the 7th of December 1732,) died at Liſnaſkea, aged 140 years, William Leland, gent.; ſome time before his death, he delivered to ſeveral gentlemen the following account:

"That he was born in Warrington, a town in England, in 1593: that he perfectly remembered the coronation of King James I. which happened in 1602; that he lived in Warrington till about the year 1664, and then came to this kingdom, and has lived ever ſince in good credit. And what is moſt to be admired, he was never ſick, or loſt his ſight, limbs, or ſtomach, till the hour of his death; he was prodigious tall and big-boned." *Weekly Miſcellany, Dec.* 23, 1732.

"April 1. N. S. there died at Paris one Philip Herbelot, a ſadler, aged 114 years. He was born at Chateau-Villiers in Lorraine, where his grandfather lived to 112 years old, and his father 113."—*Hiſtorical Regiſter*, 1716, p. 217.

"There is a remarkable inſtance of longevity in the perſon of Thomas Bright, who was a native of this pariſh (*i. e.* Long Hope in Glouceſterſhire), and died in the year 1708, one hundred

and twenty-four years old, as appears by the inſcription for him on his grave-ſtone." *Rudder's Glouceſterſhire*, p. 533.

"There is the following entry in the Pariſh Regiſter, (*i. e.* of Newent pariſh, Glouceſterſhire) A. D. 1602, Feb. 24, Ann Wilſon, widow, mother of John Wilſon, buried, aged 115." *Rudder*, p. 565.

Dr. George Bull was rector of this place (*i. e.* Siddington St. Mary) and afterwards biſhop of St. David's. He told Dr. Parſons, "chancellor of this dioceſe, a remarkable anecdote of the longevity of his pariſhoners here, ten of whom he had buried, whoſe ages together made about a thouſand years, and two of them were one hundred and twenty-three years old each." *Rudder*, 659.

"The inhabitants enjoy a fine healthy air, and live to a great age, as appears from the following ſhort hiſtory of a family of five women lately dwelling in one houſe. Honour Powell, relict of the famous Mr. Powell mentioned in the Tatler, was one of thoſe perſons who died at the age of ninety; a ſecond died in 1767, aged eighty-nine, and the other three were living when this account was taken, aged eighty-ſix, eighty-one, and fifty, the leaſt being the daughter of one of the others; and all theſe when living together were able to wait on themſelves and each other without aſſiſtance from abroad. But the moſt extraordinary inſtance of longevity to be produced in this county, is of one Henry Weſt, who reſided at Upton, a hamlet in this pariſh (*i. e.* Tetbury), in the time of king James the firſt. He lived to be 152 years of age, and it is written in a bible now in the poſſeſſion of one of his deſcendants, that he had five wives, but no child by the firſt four; that he had ten by the fifth, and lived to ſee a hundred grandchildren; and there is a tradition that he gave to each of them a braſs pot or kettle." *Rudder* 729.

"A few days ago died at Caſtletown in the county of Watford, Mr. John Gough, commonly called Dr. Gough, aged 129 years." *St. James's Chronicle, Nov.* 14, 1771.

"May 1, 1725, died Mrs. Elizabeth Steward, a penſioner in the pariſh of St. Giles in the fields, aged 124 years 6 months and odd days." *Hiſtoric. Regiſter.*

"July 1778, I ſaw Elizabeth Palmer, a woman who ſaid ſhe was 105 years old. Her maiden name was Ollerton; ſhe was born in the pariſh of Rock, afterwards ſhe lived in Mamble, and now lives in Bayton: the Regiſter of Rock was burnt ſome years ago, ſo that her age cannot be aſcertained from thence; but one Potter, who within theſe few months lived not a ſtone's caſt from her, aged 95, ſaid, he remembered Betty Palmer a woman grown and married when he was a child. She has now the perfect uſe of all her ſenſes. I ſaw her mow part of her orchard, which ſhe does every year. Within theſe few months her houſe was thatched, and ſhe ſerved the thatcher, carrying to him ſtraw and every other neceſſary up the ladder to the top of the houſe. She read to me a ſmall print without ſpectacles; which ſhe has never yet uſed, but ſays ſhe believes ſhe muſt come to them ſoon. Her memory is perfectly good; for ſhe mentioned to me ſeveral particulars which happened to her the year after the Revolution, when ſhe was big enough to milk a cow. Her ſon lives with her, and ſhe does all the buſineſs of the houſe; ſhe riſes early, drinks chiefly cyder waſhings, hath rarely taſted tea, never took tobacco in any ſhape, or drams; has had three huſbands and ſeven children; and her father died about twenty-five years ago, aged 104." *Naſh's Worceſter*, 55. Vol. II.

"Penryn, Feb. 10. About 4 days ago died about 2 miles from my houſe, one John Effingham, aged 144. He was born here in the reign of King James I. of very poor parents, and was bred up as a labourer. In the revolution of James II. he was preſſed and ſerved under Lord Feverſham, then commander in chief of the forces for ſeveral years. On king William's coming to England, he ſerved under Marſhal Schomberg, and was preſent at the battle of the Boyne in Ireland, where he behaved with ſo much intrepidity that he was ſome time after that made a corporal. He continued a ſoldier in the reign

reign of queen Anne, and fought under the duke of Marlborough at the battle of Blenheim, and loſt one eye and moſt of his teeth by the burſting of a muſket: he ſerved likewiſe in king George the Iſt's time, but was then thought unfit for ſervice and diſcarded, and came here to Penryn and worked as a labourer; but for theſe laſt thirty years he has been kept by the charitable contributions of the neighbouring gentry. It is remarkable, he was never ill for theſe 40 years paſt; and the reaſon he gave himſelf for his living ſo long was this: when young he never drank any ſpirituous liquors; when old he roſe ſummer and winter before ſix, and went to the next field, cut up a turf and ſmelt to his mother earth for ſome time, uſed conſtant exerciſe, and very ſeldom eat meat. He was to the laſt a very chearful companion, and walked ten miles about a week before his death. The loſs of his company is much regretted in the neighbourhood." *Public Advertiſer*, Feb. 18, 1757.

"On the 26th of October laſt died, and on the 27th, was interred in the old church in this town, (*i. e.* Liverpool) the remains of Elizabeth Hilton, widow, aged 121 years, born in Liverpool, and the daughter of Robert Cores, a porter; ſhe married three huſbands, viz. Simon Roberts, a porter; Thos. Chadwicke, a ſhoemaker, and at the age of upwards of 100 years, ſhe married James Hilton, a fuſtian weaver, who only lived three years after the wedding. She was to have been married to one William Newton, a porter, ſix years ago, and was diſappointed by his death. It is remarkable, that ſhe lived near 100 years in a houſe built by her mother, at the bottom of Dale-ſtreet, on the north-ſide, on T. Croſs, Eſq.'s land, held by leaſe for three lives and 21 years, one of which lives was her own, and purchaſed the reverſionary intereſt about thirty years ago. She was about 5 feet high in ſtature, a briſk active woman, and read frequently in the ſcriptures till the two laſt years of her life—had loſt all her teeth but one ſome years ago, which dropt out of her mouth two months before her departure: ſhe retained all her ſenſes to the laſt, and was never ſubject to any pain, only a dizzineſs in her head the laſt year. Had a good ſtomach, eat ſoft meats, ſoups, and fat fleſh meat; conſtantly drank wine and water, or beer, and lived very regular: her dizzineſs in her head obliged her to make uſe of a ſtick. In Cromwell's time the regiſters of this town were deſtroyed; but ſhe remembered King Charles II coming to the throne, being then 10 years old; and had a remarkable ſtrong memory, often repeating the tranſactions of her youth; was a very pious and good chriſtian, conſtantly attended the church of England ſervice, and ſo converſant in the Bible, that when it was read to her incorrectly by her relations, ſhe would have pointed out the faults." *Public Advertiſer*, November 18, 1760.

Part of a letter from a merchant at Cork, dated Auguſt 20.

"On Saturday laſt died, at about a mile diſtance from this city, James Macdonald. He was 117 years and 2 months old, and of uncommon ſtature, being 7 feet ſix inches high. His eating and drinking while his health continued were more than proportionable to his height; for he could eat near four pounds of ſolid meat at his meals, and drink in proportion of ſtrong liquors without being in the leaſt intoxicated. His limbs were larger than his height required; and his hands and fingers ſeemed of that prodigious ſize, that a lady's bracelet might have ſerved him for a ring. He was formerly ſhewn for profit, but that way of life obliging him to be much confined, and his health requiring a good deal of exerciſe, he took to the leſs profitable employment of a ſoldier; and enliſting as a grenadier, he ſerved from the year 1685 till the rebellion. In 1716, he returned to his native country, where he has been a day-labourer till within theſe three years. *Public Advertiſer*, Sept. 3, 1760.

"Laſt week died at Hamilton's baun, in the county of Armagh, Elizabeth Merchant, aged 133 years. She had her reaſon perfect to the laſt, and was never known to be ſick. Her huſband died about 15 years ago in the 116th

year

year of his age." *Public Advertiſer*, Dec. 15, 1761.

"Edinburgh, Feb. 17. About a fortnight ago died, in the 124th year of her age, Catherine Brebner, in the pariſh of Carnee, in the county of Aberdeen. She was this winter employed in ſpinning; ſhe walked ſtraight, and retained her memory and ſenſes to the laſt; and about 2 years ago her eldeſt ſon died of mere old age." *Public Advertiſer*, Feb. 23, 1762.

"On the 16th Jan. died at Paris, aged 113, Mr. John Conſtant, born at Limoux, in Languedoc, June 4, 1649. He was a lieutenant on half pay of the regiment of Vielle Marine, and in twenty-five years ſervice received ſeven wounds. He quitted the army in 1688. He uſed to ſay that he was by General St. Hillaire's ſide when that officer had his arm carried off in the ſame inſtant that the great Turenne was killed by a cannon ball. The Prince of Conti gave orders for Conſtant's burial, and defrayed the expences of it." *Public Advertiſer*, Feb. 4, 1763.

"A few days ſince died at her lodgings in Piccadilly, Mrs. Elizabeth Taylor, aged 131; ſhe was born in the year 1633." *Public Advertiſer*, April 10, 1764.

"In the year 1742, there was living at Marſeilles in Provence, a man uſually called Francis Hannibal, aged 106. In his youth he had been a ſoldier in the French army, was at Marſeilles during the time of the great plague in 1720 and 1721, and enjoyed his health while ſo many thouſands died of the contagion. He told the relator that he was of a long-lived family at Nice, in Italy; that he had a brother then living, aged 112. He conſtantly worked in the fields or open vineyards, unleſs on holydays, which he was not fond of, as he had not ſo good health on thoſe days of leiſure as when he was employed. He eat no fleſh but on Chriſtmas-day, Eaſter, and Whitſunday; was a great admirer of herbs, and pretended to have noſtrums of that kind for the curing of moſt diſtempers, if accompanied with moderate abſtinence. He had a ſon of 70 apparently older than his father. The ſon ſtooped, the old man was erect, had loſt but few of his teeth, had a loud voice, and frequently hemmed to ſhew the ſtrength of his lungs. He had ſome time before buried his wife, who was upwards of 90. Capt. T—— joking with him about remarrying, the old blade anſwered, he thought he ſhould not, but that his refuſal did not proceed from any want of ability to diſcharge the duties of the married ſtate." *Public Advertiſer*, Nov. 18, 1754.

(To be continued.)

A Plan for a Public Botanic and Agricultural Garden, near the City of Dublin.

SITUATION,—AS near the S. W. part of the Circular road as poſſible, ſuppoſe a quarter of a mile beyond it.

EXTENT,—Of about eight or ten acres, as it would be a deſirable circumſtance to have the major part appropriated to experimental agriculture. And in order to carry into real effect ſo great a national object, a diſtinct public lecturer on agriculture ſhould be appointed, of the moſt acknowledged and diſtinguiſhed abilities as to theoretical and practical agriculture, and no matter of what nation ſo he ſpeak the Engliſh language intelligibly;—ſuch lectures to be given free of expence to a certain claſs, ſuch as common huſbandmen, &c. under certain regulations: but if to be paid for, the terms of admiſſion ſhould be moderate, in order to induce the public to attend, and to improve all ranks.

Arrangement of the Botanic Garden.

HOUSE,—Fitted up and capable of occaſionally accommodating the teachers of botany and agriculture, as the frequent inſpection of the proceſs and progreſs of vegetation will be abſolutely neceſſary.—In this houſe ſhould be a library, conſiſting of botanical and agricultural books only; with liberty to the public, under certain reſtrictions and regulations, of peruſing and taking abſtracts from them.

Such out houſes ſhould be erected as may be deemed neceſſary.

GREEN

GREEN AND HOT-HOUSES,—Of ſuch length, breadth and height as will admit the different exotic trees, ſhrubs, under-ſhrubs and lower plants which may require ſuch a ſituation.

OPEN GARDEN,—To be divided into certain lots or compartments, of greater or leſs magnitude, as occaſion may require.

FIRST LOT,—Specimens of all plants whether foreign or domeſtic, which bear the open air, ſyſtematically arranged.

SECOND,—Specimens of the indigenous or wild plants which grow naturally in Ireland.

THIRD,—Poiſonous plants of foreign countries which bear the open air.

FOURTH,—Poiſonous plants which grow wild in Ireland.

FIFTH,—Foreign graſſes which bear the open air.

SIXTH,—Iriſh graſſes, or ſuch as are to be met with growing wild, and require little or no care.

SEVENTH,—Muſhrooms of foreign countries.

EIGHTH,—Native muſhrooms.

NINTH,—Foreign ferns.

TENTH,—Native ferns.

ELEVENTH,—Foreign moſſes.

TWELFTH,—Native moſſes.

THIRTEENTH,—Foreign leguminous plants or the pulſe tribe, which bear the open air.

FOURTEENTH,—Leguminous plants of our own country.

FIFTEENTH,—Officinal or medicinal plants which bear the open air.

Beſides ponds for aquatic plants, artificial rockeries, and mounts for ſaxatile and alpine plants.

It is to be underſtood that trees, ſhrubs and underſhrubs are to be diſpoſed of in the beſt manner through the garden, as the different lots will not in general allow of their admiſſion from their magnitude.

All the different plants ſhould have the Linnæan names in Latin, and the moſt common Engliſh names affixed to them. Where genuine Iriſh names are obtainable they ſhould be added to the indigenous plants of this kingdom.

As the Teachers of Botany and Agriculture ſhould be men of liberal education and regularly bred to ſcience, an adequate ſalary ſhould be annexed to their reſpective employments.

The want of a public Botanic Garden in this kingdom, but more particularly in or near this city, is much to be regretted. No reputable ſchool of medicine can properly be ſaid to be complete without one; the Botanic Gardens at Edinburgh, Paris, Leyden, Padua, Florence, Piſa, Bologna and Upſal are honourable and convincing proofs of their neceſſity as an appendage to a medical ſchool, and ſimilar inſtitutions at Cambridge and Oxford in our ſiſter country, are praiſeworthy examples to every other univerſity, of equal repute, reſpectability and learning.

However, Botanical Gardens are not merely confined to Colleges and Univerſities,—every wiſe, political and poliſhed government has ſeen the abſolute neceſſity of ſuch eſtabliſhments, where ſpecimens of the various vegetable productions of every nation and clime are brought at once before our view, and with ſcientific fondneſs has encouraged, protected and extended them:—among others, what a pre-eminent inſtance is the Royal Garden at Kew! condeſcendingly ſuperintended with a noble degree of enthuſiaſtic regard, by our much beloved and moſt gracious king and queen, whoſe exemplary partiality for botany is ſuch as to make it reſpected as a ſcience, and as an amuſement faſhionable and agreeable to perſons of leiſure in all ranks and ſituations. Indeed in England in general horticulture ſeems to have made a moſt rapid progreſs; nor is it to be wondered at, for the continual intercourſe of England with the north and the ſouth, the weſt and the eaſt, muſt ever give the Britiſh gardens a decided ſuperiority over thoſe of other nations, as in fact the ſucceſs of Botanic Gardens muſt ever keep peace with the commerce of the countries in which they are eſtabliſhed.

It is ſincerely to be hoped and ardently to be wiſhed, that the love of botany and the cultivation of plants may at length ſtrike root, and ſhed its ſalutary influence among the people of rank and opulence in this kingdom; eſpecially as the preſent age ſeems to be

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ſo favourable to the ſtudy of every part of nature on the moſt ſolid and philoſophical principles; our commerce is extending, our wealth is increaſing, and therefore why ſhould we be behindhand with every other nation of equal reſpectability, in eſtabliſhing a meaſure which appears to be ſo nationally eſſential?

The want of the land required ſeems to be one of the moſt ſtriking, and allowedly obvious cauſes, which has prevented the commencement of the eſtabliſhment of a Botanic Garden. But if the meaſure were once thought worthy of the notice of the government of this country ſo as to induce them to inſtitute a Royal Botanic Garden, a ſufficiency of land in every particular well ſituated, as to diſtance from Dublin, aſpect, variety of ground, water, and many other deſirable circumſtances could be eaſily had, being in the immediate gift of our moſt gracious ſovereign; the ground alluded to is ſituated in his majeſties deer park, adjoining Mrs. Talbot's lodge. And here if a Garden were eſtabliſhed, the profeſſor of botany might have occaſional acceſs for the inſtruction of his pupils.

As parliament has this ſeſſions granted 500l. to the Dublin ſociety for the commencement of a Botanic Garden, it is to be hoped this uſeful eſtabliſhment may immediately take place on the above very judicious plan, which was formed by Dr. Walter Wade of the royal college of phyſicians of Dublin and teacher of Botany.

On the Syrtes and Tides of the Mediterranean.

By the Abbé Mann.

BY the name of Syrtes, the ancients underſtood two large ſhoals ſituated on the African coaſt between Cyrenaica and Byxacene, at the diſtance of 150 leagues aſunder. They called the Syrtic Sea, all the ſpace comprehended by the coaſts of thoſe two regions, bounded on the eaſt by Cape Razet, and on the weſt by Cape Bona, forming a vaſt gulph 200 leagues wide, and 80 in depth, open to the north-eaſt. The great Syrtes was the eaſternmoſt, in what is now named the gulph of Sidra. The little Syrtes was to the weſt, between the iſle of Jerba (formerly Meninx and Lotophagitis) and that of Kerkenis, (formerly Cercina.) The Syrtes are now called the ſhoals of Barbary.

After this geographical deſcription, the Abbé gives various quotations from ancient authors, in verſe and proſe, to ſhew the terrific ideas always entertained of the ſand banks, proceeding from their ſhifting and uncertain nature, whence they proved the ſure diſtruction of the ſhips engaged among them. He concludes, however, that they were in reality little different from the banks on the coaſt of Flanders: and that the ebbing and flowing ſea covering them, ſo much ſpoken of by the ancients, was no other than the tides, regular in calm weather, and irregular in ſtorms.

It is a common opinion that there are no tides in the Mediterranean, but this is not univerſally true. The knowlege of the ancients concerning the tides was very limited; and indeed the ſeas they chiefly frequented could give them no exact ideas of tides. Bernoulli and De la Lande have demonſtrated that in detached ſeas the tides are proportional to their extent in longitude; and from their calculations the Caſpian, Euxine, Baltic, and great part of the Mediterranean, can have no ſenſible tides for want of longitudinal extent. There are four places in the Mediterranean in which tides are obſerved; in the Syrtic Sea, the Adriatic, the Faro of Meſſina and the Euripus ſeparating the iſle of Negropont from the main of Greece. The Faro and Euripus being narrow channels, in which the ſea is acted upon by the winds as well as the moon, may be regarded rather as having currents than tides. The Adriatic has a current along its eaſtern ſide which forms regular tides, moſt ſenſible on approaching its extremity. That there are tides in the Syrtic ſea is proved not only from theory, but from the teſtimony of Dr. Shaw, and M. de Chabert, ocular witneſſes. To theſe then, joined to the looſe light texture of the ſands compoſing the Syrtes, reſembling that

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of the ſands on the neighbouring deſarts, may be attributed the changeable nature of thoſe famous ſhoals, which in the imperfect ſtate of ancient navigation, might juſtly inſpire dread in mariners. The Flemiſh banks, though more ſolid in their texture and thoroughly examined in all parts are even at preſent the cauſe of numerous ſhipwrecks every year.

Account of Bilidulgerid in Africa. By M. Saugnier.

(Concluded from page 208.)

THE children are brought up with the greateſt care; but they have not, like thoſe of Zaara, any proofs of courage to give to be conſidered as men. Age alone, their dexterity in the management of their horſes and arms, and their labour in harveſt time ſuffice. When they marry, a portion is given them, conſiſting of apparel, arms, and cattle; and they afterwards become whatever their induſtry or opportunities may permit. Thoſe who have a knowledge of their religion turn prieſts, marry as well as the reſt, and practice all the exerciſes of their countrymen. They are, however more reſpected, and in their old age become the judges of the nation. If they meet with misfortunes they are ſupported, whereas thoſe who are not of that holy profeſſion, find no reſource but in their induſtry, in the plunder for which they adventure on the territory of their neighbours, the Moors, or in the profit of the caravans.

The horſemen are more reſpected than the reſt, having no employment but the uſe of arms, and being for ever in the practice of it, both in peace and war. In the field they behave courageouſly; in time of peace, they exerciſe themſelves in the management of their horſes, and in a variety of military evolutions. They alſo eſcort the caravans, for which ſervice they receive pay, being obliged to buy and keep their horſes themſelves. They are eaſily known, for being almoſt always on horſeback, and wearing no boots, they have a callous lump on that part of the leg, that comes in contact with the iron of the ſtirrup. Theſe people are the moſt formidable robbers in the world; they ruſh with unequalled rapidity on thoſe they mean to plunder, and without giving them time to ſtand on their defence, carry off every thing that comes in their way. Their horſes which they break in an admirable manner, and for the wants of which they are always able to provide, are the beſt in exiſtence. They are taken the greateſt care of, know their maſter, are obedient to his voice, and will not bear to be backed by any other man.

The chief, in time of war, is choſen indiſcriminately from among the natives or the fugitive Moors. His authority laſts no longer than the campaign; but during that time it is abſolute. When it is expired, he gives an account of his actions to the old men aſſembled, and is rewarded or puniſhed, according to his ſucceſs or his conduct. His ſucceſſor is then appointed, and he ſerves in the army, undiſtinguiſhed from the common maſs of individuals.

Theſe people have a chief prieſt, whom they treat with a reſpect bordering on admiration. His name is Sidy Mohammet Mouſſa, and his ordinary reſidence at about fifteen leagues from cape Non, near the town called Illeric. Although this man has no troops at his command, he is nevertheleſs the moſt powerful of all Africa; his authority is indeed without bounds. If he order war to be made upon the emperor of Morocco, war is proclaimed: if he wiſh it to ceaſe, the war is at an end. Though he has no property of his own, every thing is at his diſpoſal. Every family makes him a yearly preſent, vying with one another in the richneſs of the gift. He adminiſters juſtico to every one; ſubmits all accuſations to his council, and a few days after, pronounces a definitive ſentence. He requires nothing from any body, and yet all are inclined to give. Widely different in his principles and conduct from the emperor of Morocco, he does not pretend to be inſpired by the prophet; nor has he the audacity to make his people believe ſo; he liſtens on the contrary to the advice of the wiſe and experienced, and gives

judgment in conformity with their opinions. His dominion extends over all the nations of Bilidulgerid and Zaara. The very Moors reſpect him; and the emperor himſelf, all-powerful as he is, has never dared to make an attack on this man's authority, nor to ſend his troops towards the place he inhabits. This ought to convince him that the authority which proceeds from the love of the people, is a thouſand times greater than that conferred by terror, or a warlike force.

The Jews, diſperſed in the different parts of the country, live only in the towns, and never cultivate the earth, although much remains unoccupied. They all turn their attention to trade, work in a varety of ways, and are obliged to purchaſe the neceſſaries of life. This nation, among the Monſelemines, is what the ſlave is in Barbary. They are made to work according to the pleaſure of the Arabs, nor are they even allowed the wretched liberty of complaining. A Jew never carries arms: if he had the misfortune to do ſo, and ſhould defend himſelf againſt an Arab, he would be puniſhed with death, the vengeance may even extend to his family. The free exerciſe of their religion is however left them, which, joined to the avarice that deſcends from one generation to another of this wandering nation, makes them ſuffer all the indignities, that a man of the leaſt feeling would revolt at.

Different from their neighbours, the Mongearts and the Moors, the Monſelemines never endeavour to make proſelytes. When they have a chriſtian ſlave, they treat him with humanity, let him want for nothing, and put him to no painful taſk. Money, their darling idol, is the cauſe of this indulgence.—They deteſt the chriſtians, but they love money; and fear that the ill-treatment of their ſlaves might occaſion their ſickneſs or death, and thus rob them of the expected ranſom: it is to money, that the chriſtians, whoſe evil ſtar conducts them to that country, owe the little comfort they experience there.

Among the Mongearts, a chriſtian who ſhould chaunt the prayer, or ſuffer circumciſion, would have his liberty and the rank of citizen; the family to which he might have belonged, would give him cattle to enable him to live like them. A chriſtian at Morocco, whoſe curioſity ſhould carry him within a moſque, would be put to death, or forced to aſſume the turban. But among the Monſelemines he would have nothing to fear; money there takes the lead of religion; they would content themſelves with turning him out, without even giving him a blow; but they would make him pay as much as his means might permit.

Among the Moors, a chriſtian who ſhould be caught with a woman of the nation, would be forced to turn Mahometan to avoid death; but among the Monſelemines the woman alone is puniſhed. She is put into a ſack, and thrown into the ſea: the chriſtian has nothing to apprehend; money is his ſaviour.

If in a diſpute, a chriſtian ſlave defend himſelf againſt his maſter, the crime is puniſhed with death among the neighbouring nations; but among the Monſelemines it remains unpuniſhed, or is at moſt repaid with a few ſtripes. The money expected for his ranſom protects him: that is the touchſtone that puts every thing to the proof.

If an Arab kill a Jew, or a man of his own nation, a ſmall fine to the Jew's family ſaves him; but he is obliged to pay a large ſum to that of the Arab. This inſatiable thirſt for gold is the more inconceivable, as the inhabitants of theſe countries hardly make any uſe of it. They hoard it up with care, and often deny themſelves the neceſſaries of life, rather than ſpend the ſmalleſt piece of money: when a father of a family dies, although he has accumulated a great deal during his life, none is ever found among his effects; he has buried it in the earth unknown to every body. He hopes, no doubt, to be the better for it after his death, and to be reſpected in the other world, according to the quantity of ſpecie he ſhall have had in his poſſeſſion. Miſers ſhould go to that country; they would there learn means of œconomy that would ſhew them, that in compariſon with the Arabs, they are perfect prodigals.

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The Mongearts have not near ſo great a luſt for gold or ſilver; they employ thoſe metals only to make trinkets for their women, when they procure any by a ſhipwreck or the ſale of their productions; and will willingly exchange it for gunpowder or other articles uſeful to their exiſtence, or pleaſing to their fancy.

The country of the Monſelemines is very fertile, producing all the neceſſaries of life, almoſt without cultivation. The plains are watered by an infinite number of ſtreams that render them fruitful. Palm, date, fig, and almond trees, abound. They have alſo large quantities of oil, wax, and tobacco, which they ſell at the public markets, the merchandize of the country being carried to Mogador. Very good grapes are cultivated in the gardens, are dried by the Arabs, and converted into brandy by the Jews.

This abundance enables the inhabitants to live better than thoſe of Zaara: in the country, however, their frugality approaches that of the deſart; for as the Arabs of Zaara, are often obliged for want of corn to content themſelves with milk, ſo the Monſelemines, that they may not make ſuch frequent viſits to their magazines, eat only in the evening. In the towns they live well, making two meals a day, one at about ten o'clock, and the other at the ſetting of the ſun, which gives a great deal of occupation to the negreſſes; for they are almoſt inceſſantly employed in grinding the corn, and dreſſing the victuals. The inhabitants of the ſmall towns alſo ſleep in a more comfortable manner; they ſpread mats on the floor of their apartments, make uſe of linen, and reſt quietly, without being expoſed to the night air.

On the Deluges mentioned by the Ancients.

By the Abbé Mann.

THE real or fabulous deluges mentioned by the ancients, may be reduced to ſix or ſeven; and, though ſome authors have endeavoured to repreſent them all as imperfect traditions of the univerſal deluge, the Abbé does not doubt that they refer to various real and diſtinct events of the kind. 1. The ſubmerſion of the Atlantis of Plato, probably was the real ſubſidence of a great iſland ſtretching from the Canaries to the Azores, of which thoſe groups of iſlets are the relics. 2. The deluge in the time of Cadmus and Dardanus, placed by the beſt chronologiſts in the year 1477 B. C. is ſaid by Diodorus Siculus to have inundated Samothrace, and the Aſiatic ſhores of the Euxine ſea. 3. The deluge of Deucalion which the Arunidelian marbles fix at 1529 B. C. overwhelmed Theſſaly. 4. The deluge of Ogyges placed by Acuſilaus, in the year anſwering to 1796 B. C. laid waſte Attica and Bœotia. With the poetical and fabulous accounts of Deucalion's flood are mingled ſeveral circumſtances of the univerſal deluge; but the beſt writers atteſt the locality and diſtinctneſs both of the flood of Deucalion, and of Ogyges. 5. Diodorus Siculus, after Manetho, mentions a flood which inundated all Egypt in the reign of Oſiris; but in the relations of this event are ſeveral circumſtances reſembling the ſtory of Noah's flood. 6. The account given by Beroſus the Chaldean, of an univerſal deluge, in the reign of Xiſuthrus, evidently relates to the ſame event with the flood of Noah. The Perſian Guebres, the Bramins, Chineſe and Americans have alſo their traditions of an univerſal deluge. The account of the deluge in the Koran has this remarkable circumſtance; that the waters which covered the earth, are repreſented as proceeding from the boiling over of the cauldron or oven Tannour, within the bowels of the earth; and that, when the waters ſubſided, they were ſwallowed up again by the earth. The Abbé then gives a ſummary of the ſcripture account of the deluge, from which it clearly appears, that part of the waters came from the atmoſphere, and part from under ground; and then proceeds to his phyſical remarks on the mode by which the event might have been produced.

In order to facilitate the conception, he takes a globe of a toiſe diameter, to which he refers the calculations belonging to the globe of the earth. After comparing the ſolid contents of the earth

supposing it a plain, with that of a concentric globe, passing through the summit of Chimboraço, (the highest known mountain) he finds the difference of the quantities to amount to $\frac{1}{100}$ of the whole; which last is therefore the proportion of a spherical ring, reaching from the plain of the earth to the summit of Chimboraço, compared with the globe of the earth. The height of this mountain on a globe of a toise in diameter would be only $\frac{1}{12}$ of a line. A spherical ring of this thickness round such a globe would contain as many cubic inches as would equal twelve pints of Paris measure, or three gallons English. Now the Abbé thinks that such a quantity of water thrown out of a globe six feet in diameter upon its surface, by the force of internal fire, is but a moderate exertion of a power easily conceivable.

Substance of the New Polish Constitution decreed by the Diet.

ARTICLE I. The kingdom of Poland, and Grand Dutchy of Lithuania, with the remainder of the dutchies, Waywodeships, countries and districts, of which they now consist, being, according to their rights and privileges, an individual whole, shall constitute forthwith an indivisible, free and independent republic, whose supreme power shall be vested in the Diet. The latter, having constantly the king at its head, shall consist of the senators and the representatives of the nobility; and if thus assembled in this lawful manner, it shall have the sole power of making laws, and the nation shall only be bound to obey such laws as the Diet hath enacted. The Diet alone can impose taxes, and support therewith an army which must be faithful; it can alone declare war, make peace, and conclude all kinds of treaties, establish and direct colleges or offices of state, fix their duration, chuse their members, send Ambassadors, &c. &c. In short, no ordinances shall be executed in the territories of the republic, which have not been derived from the states in Diet assembled. The legislative power shall for ever remain separated from the executive power. The Diet can therefore accomplish the execution of all its decrees by the magistrates only. No part of the executive power shall order any thing, or act beyond what has been ordained by the laws.

Art. II. The property of the feudal right shall never be annihilated, and the sovereignty of the republic over the feoffee, shall constantly continue

Art. III. The Roman catholic religion of both rituals shall be the constant predominant one in Poland.

Art. IV. The secession from the Roman catholic religion to some other religion, shall ever be a crime in Poland; and he that shall be convicted thereof, is to be banished the kingdom; at the same time the constitution of 1775, with regard to Protestants, shall be observed.

Art. V. The king and queen of Poland must be Roman catholics. Should the queen be of a different persuasion, and not abjure the same, she cannot be crowned.

Art. VI. The grand dutchy of Lithuania shall remain for ever united with Poland, in which respect the rights of the union, and other particular rights of that province, shall be preserved.

Art. VII. The incorporation of Courland with Crown-Poland and the grand dutchy of Lithuania, made in 1569, besides all other constitutions with regard to that dukedom, as likewise of the district of Pilthen, shall be preserved inviolate.

Art. VIII. It shall be permitted to no branch of the public power, not even to the legislative branch, to exchange or cede any possession of the republic. Treaties of that kind are not only declared void, but every one who shall propose them, is to be declared and punished as a traitor to his country.

N. B. The succession to the throne, according to the new constitution, is henceforth to be accomplished by the choice of the states.

The Act for annulling the Diet of Poland assembled in 1788, as also the Laws which it had passed, emanating from the last Confederated Diet,

DIET, was drawn up in the following manner:

Not to leave to posterity any traces of the ordinary diet opened in 1788, and afterwards converted into a revolutionary diet on the 3d of May 1791, we declare, by the unanimous consent of the republican states assembled, this diet as not having existed, and its decrees of no effect. The constitution, the laws, and all the decrees made in the course of this diet, having been the cause of every kind of calamity, and the loss of those immense provinces which the republic has suffered, we annul and decree, that they shall not be inserted in our code of laws: and as this diet, among other things, reversed the law which forbade the choice of a successor during our life, and the nomination of any one whatever to succeed to the crown of Poland, and demanding us to agree to that change, while we, remembering the Pacta Conventa, persisted in it by energetic representations; but not being able to resist the repeated demands of the diet then assembled, who had dispensed us, in the name of the whole nation, from the sworn article in the Pacta Conventa, with regard to the succession to the throne, we obeyed faithfully their declared will. We are persuaded that such a step, which had not in view our personal advantage, or that of our family, cannot be imputed to us as a fault; but as the illusory aspects of the same diet, instead of the welfare, has brought the greatest disasters on the republic, on that account we promise, with the consent of the states now assembled, that from this time it shall not be lawful either for us or our successors, without the consent of the republic, to violate or weaken this fundamental law of the Polish nation.

British Theatre.

January 21, 1794.

MISS LEAKE appeared the first time on the stage, at the Haymarket, in Rosetta in "Love in a Village." This young lady, who is a pupil of Dr. Arnold, discovered much musical skill as might be expected from her instructor. She likewise shewed diffidence very impressive, and a voice which by care and application may be rendered very useful to the Theatre.

Feb. 1. The hon. Mrs. TWISLETON, who had amused herself with occasionally performing in private plays, and had appeared once or twice on the Liverpool stage, came forward in the character of Belvidera, in "Venice Preserved," at Covent-garden, and was received with abundant applause, by a crowded and brilliant audience. This lady's features are agreeable, and her person possesses peculiar symmetry and elegance; but the latter is rather petite, and the former wants expression. Her voice, however, wants variety, and, possibly from too much exertion, in order to fill so large a Theatre, on Saturday evening it came upon the ear with a loud monotony, destructive of all possibility of pathetic effect, and ill suited to a character where so much of the plaintive is predominant, and where sensibility must be affected and interested by mingling the loftier tones of dignity with the gentler notes of tenderness and love. She appeared to have studied the part, and to have watched the manner of Mrs. Siddons, and those actresses who are allowed to be most successful in its representation, with great attention. Hence she was correct in all the means of producing stage effect, and played several of the scenes powerfully. Though her action was somewhat redundant, it was in general graceful. Upon the whole, had she a better modulation, or a more harmonious voice, she would prove a powerful rival to any modern competitor in the character. As it was, it was an effort that entitles the lady to no inconsiderable share of commendation.

5. *Love's Frailties; or, Precept against Practice*, a Comedy, by Mr. Holcroft, was acted the first time at Covent garden. The characters as follow;

Muscadel, - - - - Mr. Lewis;
Sir Gregory Oldwort, Mr. Quick,
Seymour, - - - - - Mr. Holman;
Craig Campbell, - - Mr. Munden;

James,

James, - - - - Mr. Farley;
Paulina, - - - - Mrs. Esten;
Nannette, - - - Mrs. Mattocks;
Lady Louisa Compton, Mrs. Fawcett;
Mrs. Wilkins, - - Mrs. Platt; and
Lady Fancourt, - - Mrs. Pope.

The main object of the satire is to hold up to ridicule that character so common in life, a man professing the utmost purity of morals, and rigidly austere upon those who do not exactly square their conduct by the precepts he has eternally in his mouth, although he is the slave of vicious passions in private, and lecherous in the extreme. The hypocrite's character (Sir Gregory) is well drawn, and his precepts and practice are forcibly contrasted.

The plot exhibits the distress of a man of family driven to penury by the oppression of a brother, and obliged to turn painter, in order to provide some maintenance for an only daughter, and his faithful servant from Switzerland, who had lived with him twenty years, nursed his child, attended his wife in her last illness, and shared in all his misfortunes. A brother and sister of high birth are taken under Sir Gregory's roof, on being deserted by their noble relations, when they lost their parents; but this is done by Sir Gregory not from motives of benevolence, but out of mere ostentation. The sister has privately married an officer in the army, and the brother has pledged his truth to Paulina, the daughter of the painter, who loves him with a mutual and equally ardent passion. Sir Gregory commands the latter to pay his addresses to Lady Fancourt, who, though she had given Muscadel room to expect her hand, takes a violent liking to Mr. Seymour, the brother; and hence arises all the interest created by the embarrassment of the two lovers. Lady Fancourt hearing of Mr. Seymour's attachment, goes to see the painter's daughter, imagining that her high rank will awe her into a compliance with her wishes, and influence her to abandon all hopes of Mr. Seymour. She is charmed with the beauty and elegance of Paulina's person, and still more by the excellence of her understanding, the refinement of her sentiments, and the soundness of her judgment. Every fresh interval adds to the impression, and at last the lady is brought to confess the superiority of Paulina's mind, and to resign her own pretensions to Mr. Seymour's hand. The painter, who has all the pride of high birth, proves to be the brother ruined and abandoned by Sir Gregory, and Sir Gregory being detected in his secret sins, they mutually disclaim their former prejudices, and a general reconciliation takes place.

This comedy has a considerable portion of originality and merit in its conduct and plot, which is worked with no small share of ingenuity and skill. The characters are not new to the stage, but are managed with good effect. The dialogue has some pithy observations interspersed throughout, and it abounds with whimsical similies and well applied temporary allusions. One passage of it, viz. declaring that a gentleman was a less useful, and often a less worthy member of society than an artist or a tradesman, gave offence to a few of the audience, on the ground of its rather favouring of the democratical principles of the times, and provoked a loud and continued expression of disapprobation and disgust, which for a few seconds interrupted the performance, and damped the effect of the scene. It has been performed six times only, the prejudices of the public operating against it. The Prologue, written by Mr. Thelwall, was spoken by Mr. Bernard; the Epilogue by Mrs. Esten.

8. *The Purse; or, Benevolent Tar.* A Musical Piece of one act, by Mr. Cross of Covent-garden Theatre, and composed by Mr. Reeve, was acted the first time at the Haymarket Theatre. The characters by Mr. Bannister, jun. Mr. Aikin, Mr. Barrymore, Mr. Dignum, Miss Menage, and Mrs. Bland. The incidents in this piece are as follow:

An old Baron, whose son has been absent many years, adopts a steward as his heir—He takes the infant son of a servant in the family to be his page—the man of business becomes jealous of his little rival, drives the mother from

the house, and seeks to ruin her child. By gaming he has been obliged to embezzle sums from his master; and finding by a letter from the boy's mother, that he has sent her money from time to time, charges him with the theft. The Baron's son at this interval returns with a seaman, who had piloted him safe into harbour; the benevolent tar approaches the youth asleep, and finds the letter from his mother upon the ground. Delighted with his piety, though he does not know him, he puts a purse of gold into his pocket.—When the steward afterwards charges him with theft, this purse found upon him corroborates the imputation.—He is just upon the point of being disgracefully driven from the Baron's Castle, when the tar, who has found out his *Sal*, and was told the boy was his *own*, enters, and, owning the purse, compels the faithless steward to make a confession of his guilt—the Baron's son follows, and the drama is at an end.

As the first performance of a young author, this piece was entitled to the applause it received.

On Saturday February 22, was acted at Covent garden a new opera, called THE TRAVELLERS IN SWITZERLAND, the production of the Rev. Henry Bate Dudley. The characters were thus represented:

Sir Leinster M'Loughlin, Mr. Rock; Sidney, Mr. Munden; Dorimond, Mr. Johnstone; Dalton, Mr. Incledon; Comte Friponi, Mr. Fawcett, Daniel, Mr. Quick; Robin, Mr. Blanchard; Swiss Burgher, Mr. Thomson; Serjeant, Mr. Richardson; Fisherman, Mr. Townsend.—Lady Philippa Sidney, Mrs. Mattocks; Miss Somerville, Miss Poole; Julia, Mrs. Clendining; Nerinda, Mrs. Martyr; Margery, Mrs. Henley; Sheperdess, Miss Hopkins.

The Travellers in Switzerland are the Sidney family, attended by Dorimond, the lover of Julia Sidney, habited as a Swiss valet, and afterward by Sir —— Sidney himself, disguised as an English guide, for the purpose of observing the conduct of his wife, and saving her, if possible, of an absurd passion for heraldry. Two other suitors to the ladies appear in comte Friponi, a coxcomical sharper, and sir Leinster M'Loughlin, an Irish knight. Their addresses and contests furnish the principal matter of the two first acts. The Travellers in their course arrive at the castle of the fair recluse, Miss Somerville, which in the neighbourhood has the reputation of being enchanted. Daniel, a curious servant of the Sidneys, gets admission by making Robin, a domestic of the castle, drunk, and putting on his livery. Robin, to punish the delinquent, calls in the Swiss soldiery, by whom the castle is for some time besieged. The circumstances are at length explained, the troops withdrawn, and Sidney and Dorimond resume their characters. Lady Sidney professes herself reformed, and the lovers of course are made happy.

From this sketch our readers will see that the author has not aimed either at artifice in his fable or regular progression in his scenes. A laughable contrast of character relieves, and a lively dialogue connects, several poetic songs; these have given scope to the genius of Shield, whose music in this opera will be found to surpass even his usual richness and variety. The manager has furnished some beautiful views of Switzerland.

The same evening, at the Theatre in the Haymarket, a new comedy was produced under the title of the Box LOBBY CHALLENGE.

Young Grampus, a young blockhead of fortune, is sent for to town, for the purpose of being launched forth on the grand tour. He falls into the hands of Fulsome, a parasitical author, and young Crotchet, an illiterate debauchee. The latter makes love to miss Grampus, the maiden aunt, and succeeds in cheating her out of her fortune. Crotchet insults, at the theatre, Letitia, a young lady, under the guardianship of old Grampus, he is chastised by Waterland, a young officer, and gives Fulsome's card. In his pursuit of his antagonist, capt. Waterland gets introduced into the Grampus family, and to Letitia, of whom he has become enamoured,

moured, and after the uſual difficulties, obtains her hand; and, at the ſame time, with what moral juſtice, we know not, Crotchet and miſs Grampus are alſo united.

An Eſſay on Female Education. By T. Lacey.

THE preſent age has certainly to boaſt of many diſtinguiſhed and eminent ſeminaries purpoſely for the cultivation of female virtue; however, I am diſpoſed to believe that the preſent mode of education is but ill calculated to imprint on their tender minds a thorough knowledge of uſeful inſtructions, as I am perſuaded it tends to exalt their infant years to ſuch a pitch of ambition, that inſtead of enriching their underſtanding by compleating every neceſſary domeſtic concern, their full time is engroſſed with more refined accompliſhments, ſuch as muſic, dancing, drawing, &c. Indeed I cannot but reflect with ſome degree of concern on the powerful rivalſhip (reſpecting faſhionable follies,) which at this period exiſts among the fair ſex; upon no conſideration whatever, when in company with an accompliſhed fair one of the modern times, muſt you diſcourſe on a topic without accompanying the ſubject with, "Dear miſs, I cannot but admire that bonnet, it highly becomes you; I do aſſure you it is perfectly neat; or, Pray miſs, do you intend viſiting the opera this evening?"

Such inſignificant converſation muſt indiſputably prove highly diſtreſſing to a mind endowed with refined ſenſibility. Parents are doubtleſs indefatigable in their exertions to render their beloved offſpring as happy as poſſible; but I muſt beg leave to obſerve, that the kind indulgence which they conſider as *pure love*, is nothing more than a miſtaken fondneſs, as it too frequently occaſions the fair one to run into unlimited expences by attending every polite promenade;—in ſhort, their whole time is entirely devoted to the pleaſures of the gay world, but alas! when exceſs of imprudence has proved fatal to their health, and likewiſe materially injured their peace of mind—what then muſt be the agitated feelings of an aged parent, whoſe ſole ſupport depends on his daily profeſſion and induſtry; keen reflection muſt naturally prey upon his dejected ſpirits, being an eye witneſs to his daughter's folly, and at the ſame time ſeriouſly lamenting the accompliſhed education of his child. Here, diſtreſs commences, and in a ſhort ſpace of time the honeſt tradeſman is reduced to a ſtate of bankruptcy, merely becauſe he cannot ſupport his daughter's inſenſible folly. We are not to be aſtoniſhed at the melancholy ſcenes of woe that daily occur through unhappy marriages; not bleſſed with a competency, they are compelled to ſuffer a torrent of diſtreſs; on the contrary, had they been ſo fortunate as to experience a domeſtic education, they probably might enjoy perfect happineſs.—Were parents in general to conſider their own as well as their children's future welfare; they certainly would bring up a child in a reverſe manner to the preſent faſhionable mode of education; the duty of a chriſtian would then be preſerved, and the more dangerous conſequences prevented. Never are children ſo perfectly happy as when they are taught to know the duty of chriſtianity;—and never ſo truly miſerable (upon reflection) when they deſert parental affection.

Remarks.

CUSTOM regulates our ideas of ſhame. In China, the emperor orders the baſtinado to be given to a miniſter or a mandarin; and afterwards theſe perſons continue in their employments, without thinking themſelves diſhonoured or degraded. They are like ſcholars who return to their places after having been whipped.

The idea of virtue is become ſo effaced, that ſcarcely do we hear the name of it pronounced. The uſual expreſſion now is, an *honeſt man*, which contains but negative qualities; or ſometimes qualities are mentioned, as bravery, fidelity, &c. but a collective word which expreſſes them all is ſeldom made uſe of.

Aſi

A full and Authentic Account of the Trial of Hamilton Rowan, Esq.

(Continued from our last.)

KING's BENCH—*Feb.* 3, 1794.

A MOTION was made for bringing up A. H. Rowan, Esq; for the purpose of making an affidavit on which to found a motion for setting aside the verdict given in this case on Wednesday last, and calling a new trial.

Mr. H. Rowan having been brought up on a *habeas corpus* accordingly,—the Recorder moved the court "that the verdict should be set aside." In support of the motion, he stated, that the affidavits which should be produced, would prove that the evidence on which the verdict was founded, ought not to be credited—and that it was impossible for Mr. Rowan to have procured the testimony by which this incredibility of the evidence against him previous to his trial was proved. The nature of the prosecution against him, which was by information, prevented him from having a view of the charges or a knowledge of the evidence to be adduced against him, until he heard them in court.—Had the prosecution been by indictment, as in ordinary cases, he would have had knowledge of both, and of course might be prepared to rebut them. Affidavits should be adduced, proving that Mr. Rowan had since his conviction found such evidence, as if it had gone at first before the jury must have acquitted him, though his situation at present is such as renders it impossible for him to procure all the evidence on this side which he might do if differently circumstanced. As it was an acknowledged principle of law that when there is reason to believe full justice has not been done in a first trial, the matter should again be sent before a jury, he rested confident that their lordships would lay the present verdict aside.

Mr. Curran spoke on the same side, in addition to what had been advanced by the Recorder; mentioned another circumstance which was to be confirmed by affidavit, namely, that one of the jurors by whom the verdict against Mr. Rowan was found, had been heard to declare since the commencement of this prosecution, "that this country would never be at peace, until Mr. Rowan was either hanged or transported."

Mr. Curran shewed that this circumstance alone, was sufficient to invalidate the verdict.

The court were pleased to admit the affidavits which were produced and read. They were four.

The first was, of an hair-dresser in Denmark street, who swore, that John Lyster, on whose evidence Mr. Rowan was convicted, ought not to be believed in a court of justice, on his oath—that he had known him to be guilty of gross and wilful perjury—for that deponent had for a space of 3 years dressed said Lyster—and that on summoning him to the court of conscience before Mr. Alderman Emerson for a small sum due deponent, [he Lyster] had sworn deliberately and knowingly that he had never before seen him.

A second affidavit was read, in which it was sworn, that John Lyster, ought not to be believed in a court of justice, on his oath—for— that he had been guilty of perjury in repeated instances—one of which it recited, and in which said John Lyster had sworn himself to be his younger brother, George William Lyster, who was at that time confined to his bed—and that he had taken this oath deliberately, and against the remonstrances of deponent, who represented to him the dangerous consequences of it.

A third affidavit was of Mr. Porter, bookseller, who deposed, that he had heard Mr. George Perrin, of Castle-street, stationer, one of the jury by whom Mr. Rowan was convicted—declare that "this country and its commerce could never flourish until Napper Tandy and Hamilton Rowan were hanged or transported;" or words to that effect, and that deponent was astonished to hear that this man had been sworn a juror on the trial of Mr. Rowan.

The fourth affidavit was that of Mr. Rowan himself, who swore that the evidence which he had now to adduce, and which he believed must induce any jury of honest men to acquit him, he could not have procured previous to his trial.—He swore also that the evidence given by Lyster on his trial, so far as it related to the publication and circulation of the paper, recited in the information was false.—He deposed too, that John Giffard, the high sheriff, by whom the jury for his trial was impannelled, was for some time the manager or proprietor of the Dublin Journal—a government newspaper; and that said Giffard holds a place under government in the customs—that he firmly believes that Giffard is a man strongly prejudiced against him, this deponent, and that in impanneling the jury by which he was found guilty, said Giffard selected men known to him to be prejudiced against deponent.

These affidavits having been read, the

chief juſtice, after obſerving that the proper buſineſs of the court was, criminal trials, thought proper to adjourn the court till to morrow, declaring that this cauſe ſhould then have the precedence of all others. To-morrow, therefore, the cauſe is to be argued and the deciſion of the court on the motion, to be given.

Feb. 4. At twelve the court ſat.

Two affidavits were ſworn by Dr. Teeling and another gentleman—proving, that other jurors as well as Mr. Perrin had been heard to utter expreſſions of enmity to Mr. Rowan.

Mr Recorder propoſed, that theſe affidavits ſhould be received by the court as forming additional materials on which to ſet aſide the verdict.

The Attorney General objected to their reception, on the ground that it was directly contrary to the practice of the courts, to admit any affidavit whereon to ſet aſide a verdict, unleſs they were preſented within four days after the verdict was found.

The Recorder agreed it was neceſſary to lay before the court ſome documents on which to ground ſuch a motion within four days; but he contended that further documents might afterwards be advanced. He urged the peculiar propriety of admitting theſe affidavits now, from the ſituation in which Mr. Rowan ſtands—being in confinement, and of courſe incapacitated from collecting materials to ſhew the neceſſity of a new trial with ſo much effect as he otherwiſe might. If it were neceſſary an affidavit could be made, that the ſubject matter of thoſe now preſented to the court was not diſcovered before yeſterday evening, and indeed new information on this ſubject was coming in every hour. To obviate any ſhadow of inconvenience to the proſecutors, time would be allowed to them to conſider theſe affidavits, and anſwer them if they were anſwerable.

The Attorney Gen. ſtill oppoſed the reception of the affidavits—He hoped that no conſideration of any man ſhould induce the court to depart from eſtabliſhed practice—The rule was, that nothing ſhould be received on a motion of this kind after a lapſe of four days, and what Mr. Recorder or himſelf advanced, ſhewed in the ſtrongeſt manner the propriety and reaſon of the rule—for as new materials were every hour coming, if the court continued to receive them, there could never be an end of the buſineſs.

Mr. Curran contended that if it was within the rule yeſterday to receive the affidavits, it was ſo to day—for this was only a continuation of the buſineſs of yeſterday.

It was now propoſed to throw new light upon a ſubject in which it is ſuppoſed juſtice had not been done: would the court, he aſked, ſhut out that light?—would they ſuffer their rule to keep them in ignorance of the truth, and bar the adminiſtration of juſtice? Nothing, he obſerved, could give ſo much ſalutary effect to the example which Mr. Attorney Gen. had ſaid in opening the proſecution; he wiſhed to exhibit to the world, in the caſe of Mr. Rowan, as ſuffering all reaſonable inquiry to take place; while on the other hand, if it ſhould be found that the verdict was *ſkreened* by a rule of court—by a point of practice, the court muſt ſee the melancholy conſequences which would reſult.

Mr. Curran was followed by Mr. Fletcher on the ſame ſide, who ſhewed that this rule of excluſion of evidence after four days from the verdict, did not hold in caſes of trial at bar. He inſtanced the caſe of the king againſt the Dean of St. Aſaph, where the rule was diſpenſed with—No inconvenience could ariſe from the admiſſion of the affidavits, as the Attorney Gen. had declined anſwering any affidavits which were adduced by the defendant.

The Prime Serjeant oppoſed the admiſſion of the affidavits on the ſame ground as the Attorney Gen.

The Court then overuled the arguments for admitting the affidavits.

The chief juſtice ſhewed, that in doing this there was no ſhadow of hardſhip—for, the defendant had propoſed himſelf for judgment immediately after the verdict was found—the court, however, allowed four days—for what?—In order that if there were any ground to queſtion the verdict, the defendant might avail himſelf of it. He did ſo, and yeſterday affidavits were produced, and a motion founded on them for ſetting aſide the verdict. The court ſuppoſed that all the materials on which this motion was to reſt were then laid before them, yet now it was propoſed to receive others. As to the argument that the rule of preclusion after four days does not apply to trials at bar, his lordſhip ſaid it did not hold—for, if nothing is adduced in theſe caſes within four days, the court pronounces judgment by which all further application is precluded.

Mr. Fletcher then proceeded to ſhew, that on the affidavits already before the court, the verdict ſhould be ſet aſide. Thoſe affidavits he obſerved, ſtood uncontradicted, and therefore the court were bound to conſider them as ſtrictly true. They proved, he ſaid, three things—firſt, the incredibility of the principal, indeed, the *only* evidence

on which the verdict was founded—second, the malignity of the jury, and—third, that the proofs of these were discovered since the trial.

If any of these points, singly proved, might be thought by the court insufficient ground on which to set the verdict aside, yet their united force appeared to him to be irresistable evidence that a new trial ought to be granted—for they could not but induce a doubt in the mind of the court—"whether justice had been done?" and he shewed from a decision of lord Mansfield, in the case of Bright and Ennyon—1st Burrowes, that "if the court have reason to believe that justice has not been done, the matter should be sent to a second trial"—If this held in civil cases, he shewed it must hold still more in criminal cases—more still in a case where the government of a country is the prosecutor, and a most respectable individual the prosecuted, for in such a case the peace of the public mind and the character of public justice is at stake.

Mr. Fletcher expatiated very ably on the other arguments that proved the necessity of setting aside the verdict—the intrinsic improbability of Lyster's evidence—the affidavits which proved him to have been repeatedly perjured—the affidavit of Mr. Rowan which swore, that the whole of his evidence as to the publication was false—the charge of malignant influence in the Sheriff—and of prejudice in the Jury, all which was proved by the oaths of the most reputable citizens.

He was followed by Mr. Recorder—who urged the necessity of complying with the motion for setting aside the verdict, on the ground that it was found on false evidence.—He said, that by sending the matter to be again tried by a free jury, honestly impannelled, if Mr. Rowan should be again found guilty, the most salutary consequences might result, but not one of those consequences could follow from the verdict, now found by men, some of whom had been proved upon oath, to be influenced against his client, and the whole of them impannelled by a man under the strong influence of enmity against him.

He shewed, that in consequence of the prosecution being carried on by information instead of the usual and more constitutional mode of indictment, Mr. Rowan had been kept in the dark as well of the specific charges against him, as of the evidence who was to prosecute—and that of course it was impossible for him previous to the trial to find witnesses to refute.

The court said, Mr. Rowan might have a knowledge of the charges against him previous to his trial.

Mr. Rowan rose and declared, that at the time of his apprehension, when carried before a judge, he had indeed heard Mr. Attorney General read the information against him, but that he had requested a copy of it, which was refused, and that he was not at that time informed who the villain was that had sworn against him.

Mr. Recorder observed, that it was the usual practice in this mode of prosecution for the Attorney General to keep the information in his pocket, as his personal justification for commencing the prosecution, and that of course Mr. Rowan could not have been in possession of it. He went on and dwelt on the improbability of Lyster's evidence, when he swore that he made that entry which had been read in court on the back of the publication, without having any intention to prosecute—that he had *heard* Mr. Rowan read *that* particular composition in a room where two or three hundred people were walking about, tho' it appeared from the specimen of Mr. Rowan's voice, which the court had just now heard, that it was neither loud nor shrill, and though the prosecutor himself was at a considerable distance from Mr. Rowan, in a gallery. He remarked also the improbability of his evidence when he swore that though he was charged by his brother with a forgery, he could not remember whether within three years he had been examined on that subject in a court of justice or not. Either the *veracity* or the *memory* of the man must, he said, be given up, and in either case his evidence falls to the ground.

He then investigated the evidence of Morton, and shewed that it deserved no credit whatsoever, from the circumstance of his having sworn to what was almost manifestly false—namely, that *he did not believe* his uncle, Sheriff Giffard, to have any share, or direction, or management in the Dublin Journal, which was since sworn to be the fact—and that he did not know what degree of relation his cousin Ryan was to their common uncle;—even if the court did not think that these circumstances were sufficient to set aside the verdict, yet in mercy to the evidence, Lyster, whose character had suffered much material injury in this transaction, they should be induced to grant a new trial, on which he might bring some testimony, to rescue him from infamy.—If the oath of Mr. Hamilton Rowan, in which he swore, that the evidence of Lyster was *false*—that the Sheriff was prejudiced against him, and impanneled

a jury of prejudiced men—if that oath ſhould be believed, and he was convinced, there was ſcarcely a man in the community who would not believe it—with what *horror* muſt not the public mind be ſtruck, if judgment be pronounced on ſuch a verdict? He proteſted ſolemnly that feeling for the dignity and character of the adminiſtration of juſtice in this country, he was more intereſted in the event of the preſent motion than in that of any other in which he was ever concerned. The king had not in his dominions a ſubject more warmly attached to the conſtitution in church and ſtate than he, but he was at the ſame time a friend to the civil and religious liberties of the people. The man who goes too far in doing what he thinks may tend to ſecure theſe, may be cenſured by moderate men, but he will not therefore ceaſe to be eſteemed by moderate men. Mr. Rowan may perhaps in ſome inſtances have gone too far on this ſubject, but his conduct has always been known to originate in the beſt and pureſt motives, and there was not in ſociety a man more reſpected, nay, admired—than he.—It was therefore eſſential in the higheſt degree, that a verdict by which ſuch a man was ſubjected to public and exemplary puniſhment, ſhould be above all exception.

Mr. Curran followed Mr. Recorder—and in a ſpeech ſcarcely leſs long and eloquent than his celebrated defence of Mr. Rowan on Wedneſday, ſupported the motion for ſetting aſide the verdict.—He ſtated authorities to prove that verdicts in criminal caſes may be ſet aſide. One of theſe was that of K. againſt Rowan, where a new trial had been granted.—The other of them was that of the King verſus Pentland, where a new trial was moved for, and refuſed—on the grounds that the merits of the caſe had been tried; from which he inferred, that if the court could not lay their hand on their hearts and ſay, that the merits of the caſe had been fairly tried—that juſtice had been completely done, they ſhould grant a new trial.

On this occaſion he ſaid, one of the learned judges who now preſided [Downes, to whom he paid a very handſome compliment,] had delivered it as his opinion, that a new trial ſhould be granted, only where it was likely that ſome new light could be thrown on the ſubject, by ſending it back to a jury—or when there had been ſome irregularity in the proſecution, or miſconduct in the jury; or, when the court had reaſon to ſay they were diſſatisfied with their verdict.—This opinion of the court on a former occaſion, he ſhewed ſhould bind them on the preſent one, for certainly here the court had not reaſon to be ſatisfied with the verdict, and it was apparent that much new light had been ſhed on the ſubject ſince the trial. He cited a caſe in the 7th Modern, to ſhew that if cauſe of challenge to a juror exiſted previous to the trial which was not known till afterward this was conſidered good cauſe for ſetting aſide the verdict. This he ſaid was more neceſſary here than in England, becauſe there a ſpecial jury may be had with whoſe names the defendent is acquainted before his trial, and may therefore inveſtigate whether they be fair men; here the caſe is not ſo, and the defendant knows not the men by whom he is to be tried, until the day of trial.

Mr. Curran then proceeded to conſider the affidavits before the court. He began with that of Mr. Rowan, which ſwears, that the ſheriff is proprietor of a government news paper—a revenue officer, and held a place in the Militia under government. He did not indeed recollect whether the affidavit ſtated him alſo as an agent or emiſſary of the caſtle, but it certainly did ſtate, that he was under the influence of malice.—Giffard, he obſerved, was preſent when this affidavit was made, and yet did not attempt to contradict it.—No underſtanding, he ſaid, would condeſcend to be embarraſſed in determining whether or not a man was fairly tried whoſe jury was impannelled by a declared enemy, and whoſe jury was compoſed of men ſelected for the circumſtance of being prejudiced againſt him.

Mr. Giffard here propoſed ſome affidavit which the court were precluded by their own rule, laid down in the morning, from admitting.

Mr. Curran propoſed waving his right to object to the reception of this affidavit, provided the proſecutors on their part would agree to admit the affidavits of the other ſide.

This however they would not agree to—of courſe the affidavit of Mr. Giffard was not received.

Mr. Curran went on to ſhew from the affidavit that Mr. Rowan did not know the cauſe of challenge which lay againſt the juror previous to his trial.

The Court aſked did the affidavit ſtate that he knew not the circumſtances of Giffard previous to the trial?

Mr. Curran replied, that it was not wonderful if in an affidavit drawn in court it was forgotten to ſtate the circumſtances with ſufficient accuracy, but that if the court would admit a ſupplementary affidavit it was ready to be made by his client. He then

ready

adverted to the evidence of Lyſter—he would not, he ſaid, deſcant on the minute particulars of his evidence, but he would have it remembered that Lyſter from a handycap ſituation in life, came into court as a government proſecutor, wearing the honourable garb of a legal defender of his country—a garb acknowledged to have been got by the interference of the man then at the head of affairs in this country. Their lordſhips were not ſtrangers to common life—he aſked them on their conſciences did they not ſee ſomething very ſtrange in Lyſter's making an entry on the back of this paper, ſtating from whence it came, and tracing it to the hand of the very man who is now become the object of a government proſecution?

Could it be the faſhion of ſuch a man to act in ſuch a manner?—No!—He got his commiſſion *pro labore impendo*—he came to court againſt Mr. Rowan to pay down the purchaſe-money. If the gaudy plumage in which he appeared in court did not grow upon him—if he was known in the world as an honeſt man, before the diſhonourable tranſactions imputed to him, would he not have found ſome one or other in a court-houſe which almoſt contained the country, to bear teſtimony to his fair fame? Would he, if not guilty, have lain down under a charge which muſt blaſt him for ever.

He then adverted to Morton's teſtimony who was bold enough to ſwear that his uncle was not proprietor of a paper which he is now ſworn to be proprietor of, and which Giffard himſelf did not contradict.

His evidence, he obſerved, was ſo ludicrouſly inconſiſtent, that the jury could not help burſting into laughter with him—and yet! on his evidence, corroborating that of Lyſter, they found guilty one of the moſt reſpectable characters of the country!—There was danger, he ſaid, of Rye-houſe plots becoming again faſhionable, if the teſtimony of every Titus Oates was thus made a common voucher of every thing adminiſtration might think proper.

He had ſhewn that the verdict ought to be ſet aſide on account of defective evidence—on account of the incredibility of evidence—the ſtrong objection to the jury and the manner in which they were impannelled—he would now ſhew that it ought to be ſet aſide in conſequencce of an improper charge from the court to the jury—a charge which he thought totally inconſiſtent with the ſpirit of the law of Ireland—His client, he obſerved, had reſted on the unprobability of the evidence againſt him—The court had ſaid—"Mr. Rowan ſeems to be ſcarcely juſtified by his invalidation of the evidence againſt him—The fact with which he is charged was a public act, and he might have produced a great many perſons to falſify the charge if it were unfounded." Is this, ſaid Mr. Curran, the medium of trial by the law of this country? Muſt a man's ſafety reſt, not on the non-eſtabliſhment of guilt, but on the negative eſtabliſhment of his innocence? It is not true that the law ſuppoſes every man to be innocent till he is proved to be gullty?—If not, how does it happen that the court ſolemnly prays for the culprit?—If not, why waſte time in the tedious proceſs of eſtabliſhing guilt, when the end might be more eaſily attained by putting the accuſed on the vindication of his innocence?—He reſted his legal character upon it, that the court was in this inſtance led beyond their underſtanding—For what did the court ſay? aſked Mr. Curran; why this—Mr. Rowan, the guilt charged on you, has not been fully proved, but you will be convicted unleſs you can bring proof that the facts are not as they have been ſtated—The fact charged is, that you publiſhed ſuch a paper at an aſſembly in Cope-ſtreet, and you deny this; then Mr. Rowan bring ſome of the people who *were* there with you to prove that you *were not* there—bring ſome of the people who aſſembled at Cope-ſtreet in uniform on that day, to prove that there was *no aſſembly* there on that day—They were all Volunteers, and of your own party who aſſembled there that day—bring ſome of thoſe to prove that no ſuch aſſembly ever met—this mode of proof is eaſy for you, and if you don't adduce it, the inference is, that you are guilty of what you are charged with."

He was going on, when the L. C. J. interrupted him, and ſaid, his meaning had been tortured—the object of that part of the charge was to ſhew that Mr. H. Rowan might have proved an *alibi*, which was done every day.

Mr. Curran appealed to the recollection of the court, and begged leave to call to his lordſhip's mind a remarkable phraſe which he uſed on that occaſion—Speaking on this ſubject, his lordſhip had ſaid that "the non-production of evidence to exculpate himſelf, when ſuch a number of his friends as were ſtated to have been preſent, was, of itſelf, *a volume of evidence againſt him!*—there were twenty gentlemen in court, Mr. Curran ſaid, who had taken notes of thoſe words—if he was miſtaken, he was miſtaken with almoſt every man in court—Taking it for granted then that the court had given ſuch a charge, they had

charged

charged the jury in violation of that great principle of the law of England, that *nemo tenetur prodere ſeipſum*.—He had been now 17 years at the bar, and never before had heard it delivered in charge from a Judge to a Jury, that bad evidence was to be ſanctioned by the ſilence of the man accuſed.—If it was now to become law he knew not, ſo help him God, how a man could be ſafe—On his knees before the tribunal of heaven he might be paſſing that moment of his life, which was afterwards to be branded with the blackeſt crime. In the moſt tyranical court which exiſted upon earth, the culprit was ſometimes gagged from defence—but it was *here* only, that *voluntary* ſilence could be conſtrued into a *volume of evidence* againſt the culprit. He did not deny that deliberating ingenuity might poſſibly wring from the word of the court, ſome ſenſe which might be reconciled to law, but would not the firſt and obvious impreſſion of them on a jury, be ſuch as he had deſcribed.

He dwelt on the wiſdom and neceſſity of reconſidering the verdict given under all theſe circumſtances—before the *irrevocabile verbum* yet went forth—before mankind ſhould again aſſume that power which they have already aſſumed of giving *their* verdict upon the deciſion of a jury, and the charge of a judge—before the hiſtorian ſhould tranſmit this event to poſterity in colours which would excite ſuch ſentiments and ſuch feelings as their lordſhips muſt have often experienced in early youth—when their hearts beat, and their eyes overflowed at reading the melancholy fate of a Ruſſel and a Sydney.

At the concluſion of Mr. Curran's ſpeech, the multitude which crowded the court and hall gave a ſhout and clap which continued for ſome minutes.

The chief juſtice roſe and ſeverely reprehended the indecency, and charged the Sheriffs on pain of heavy fine, to keep the hall of the courts clear by a military guard, if neceſſary, to-morrow;—to which day the further hearing of the motion was adjourned.

Feb. 5.] At 12 the court ſat, and Mr. Attorney General, proceeded to ſpeak againſt the motion for ſetting aſide the verdict—He ſhewed that the information had been made in the uſual manner—that the pannel of the jury was ſtruck, and the jury ſworn agreeably to common uſage—that the pannel was read over four times—that a queſtion was put to every man of them, which might have been objected to, namely, whether he had declared any opinion on this ſubject—that after an hour and an half was ſpent in this buſineſs, the jury was at length ſworn without any objection made by the traverſer.

He then gave a hiſtory of the evidence which had been advanced on the trial, and declared it was credible. He further argued, that Mr. Curran not being able to find a precedent in the books to juſtify his application, was ſtrong proof that no ſuch application for a new trial in theſe circumſtances had ever been made. He denied that the affidavits produced by the oppoſite party ſhould be taken as true, becauſe they were not contradicted—for, the reaſon why he did not contradict them was, that he did not think they could ſupport the application. As to Mr. Rowan's own affidavit, it only went to prove that he has heard and believes;—he allowed that might be taken as true; for he profeſſes to have heard and believe had been more induſtriouſly circulated in order to obtain a ſecond verdict on a verdict; but he hoped the court ſitting then to determine what ought to be done in the abſtract, would not be influenced by the dictates of a mob there or any where elſe. He denied that the court were proper judges of the credibility of Lyſter's, or any other evidence—it was a point for the jury to decide on, and they had decided upon it. The traverſer, by impeaching the evidence of Lyſter on the trial, proved that he had known Lyſter was to be examined;—if his credit was to be impeached, it ſhould have been done at the trial, and not having been done then with effect, it was now too late to do it. No inconvenience either had reſulted to the traverſer from the proſecution being by information *ex officio*, for, if it had been by indictment he would have been equally ignorant of the information ſworn againſt him—nor would the circumſtance of a Grand Jury's previous deciſion on it put him into poſſeſſion of its contents, unleſs it could be ſuppoſed that ſome of the jurors forgetting their oath, ſhould betray what they were bound to conceal. He denied the poſition of Mr. Curran, that when juſt cauſe of challenge lay againſt a juryman at the time of trial, which was not known till afterwards, it was juſt cauſe why the verdict ſhould be ſet aſide. The law of the land was, that challenge ſhall be made at the trial or not at all.

But here, he denied any juſt cauſe of challenge exiſted, for having previouſly declared an opinion on a man's general conduct, did not incapacitate a juror from trying a particular fact—nor even if he had declared an opinion on the particular fact, would that diſqualify him from trying that fact unleſs it were proved that he had

given

given that opinion in malice. For proof of this he referred to 2d Hawkins, 583; and to prove that no challenge could be to the array of the jury, after one juror was sworn, he quoted Justice Hobart 235.

As to the objections made to the Sheriff, &c it did not appear by the affidavit, when the traverser came by the knowledge of these circumstances—if before the trial, he should have objected to the array by Giffard and then the *Venire* would have gone to the other Sheriff. That he did know these objections to Giffard before the trial, was evident from this circumstance—that in all the other instances he mentions having come to the knowledge of the facts stated, *since* the trial; in this he makes no such assertion. —If the court grant a new trial on this ground, every man charged with misdemeanor, may first submit to trial, and have chance of acquittal, and if he missed, he would then challenge the array.

Mr. Attorney Gen. then entered into a justification of the judges' charge, by shewing it was proper for him to mention to the jury, that where the fact if committed must have been known to many, it was a presumption of guilt, if no evidence was brought to refute the imputation.—As to that part of Mr. Rowan's affidavit, which swears that the evidence of Lyster was false, it only went to prove that the sum of his testimony in general was not true, but did by no means deny that Mr. Rowan was guilty of the offence of which he was convicted.

He was followed by Sol. Gen. Toler, who complimented the court on their great patience, and not having shewn any signs of resentment at what he called one of the most unbridled sallies of eloquence ever known in a court of justice, [alluding to Mr. Curran's speech.] He laid considerable stress on what had fallen from Mr. Fletcher—that they had no new substantive ground of defence to bring forward, but only a farther refutation of the evidence on which the verdict had been found.—He said the gentleman wished to make the court and jury change places—they had attempted to justify the publication to the jury, and now they wish to make the court decide on the credibility of the evidence. —In the attempt made by Mr. Curran, to justify the publication, he observed, he had completely fastened the *fact* of publishing round the neck of his client—he had said in the warmth of his zeal—"that the publication was the effusion of the manly mind of the traverser of the bar" It was not for him to pluck away the laurel :—

Non detrahere vellem, multacum laude,
adherentem fronti coronam.

Mr. Toler also went into a justification of the charge of the judge, by shewing it was highly reasonable to expect that Mr. Rowan would have brought some evidence to controvert the facts stated, if they were not true.

After having gone over pretty nearly the same ground with the Attorney General, he congratulated the traverser on there being yet in this country the cool dispassionate tribunal, before which he now stood, to distribute equal justice, while the author of the Rights of Man was sunk into the depths of a dungeon, and the orator of the human race [Anacharsis Cloots] has his lips closed for ever. The traverser himself ought to feel happy, that he had been stopped in his career—for, if in consequence of this call to arms, any act of violence had been committed on the part of the people, he would have been now tried not for a libel, but for high treason. The proclamation which he had so severely censured, saved his head—for every body knew that the country, at the time of its publication, stood on the eve of insurrection. In saving him, government had saved a man who, in every other instance, would probably prove an ornament to his country, though in one instance he had acted under the influence of gross mistake.

Mr. Fraknland spoke against the removal of the verdict. His arguments were very nearly the same with those of the gentlemen who preceded him, except that he asserted a new trial ought not to be granted even tho' the defendant came to know what was good ground for a new trial since the finding of the last verdict, unless the attorney should also swear that *he* was not in possession of this previous to the trial.

[Mr. Dowling afterwards proposed to make an affidavit of this nature, and was told by the court it was unnecessary.]

The Prime Serj. closed the arguments on the part of the crown. The only new argument he adduced was a case which he cited from one of the books—it was of an application made for a new trial on the ground that an incompetent witness had been examined on the trial—the application was however refused—Hence he argued that if an improper witness being examined, could not justify a new trial, *a fortiori*, a witness in every point competent being examined, could not justify setting aside a verdict merely because his credibility was impeached.

The court declared that they would take the earliest opportunity of delivering their sentiments on the arguments which had

had been offered—to-morrow, it could not be done, as there was a trial at bar for murder—but on Friday if possible, they would deliver their opinion.

Feb. 7.] This day the court proceeded to deliver their opinions, *seriatim*.

Lord Clonmell, Chief Justice.—This is a motion made on behalf of the traverser, Archibald Hamilton Rowan, founded on a notice dated the third of February instant; and it is to set aside the verdict had against him in this cause: first, as being contrary to the justice of the case; as founded upon false evidence, and upon testimony not deserving of any credit. The second ground is, that some of the jury, who found the verdict, were prejudiced and at enmity with the traverser, and had declared that opinion before the were sworn upon the jury. The third ground is, because the sheriff who arrayed the pannel was prejudiced against the defendant, and did array the pannel so as to have him tried by an unfair jury.

The motion is stated to be founded upon six affidavits, (of which I have copies, as have my brothers) stated to have been filed in this cause on the third of February, stating the nature of the case, and the reasons to be offered. The motion was called on that day and ordered to stand for the next day, when another ground of objection was made in the argument of the motion, or suggested by counsel, founded upon an observation stated from his memory, and unsupported by any oath; which he argued from, as if used by me in my charge to the jury; which I shall take notice of in its proper place. The affidavits to the first point in the notice, for I have endeavoured to class them so as to make them intelligible to every person; the affidavits, I say, to the credit of Lyster, are three:

1st Clarke, the peruke-maker, who is of opinion that Lyster is not to be credited, as he believes, because in a suit in the court of Conscience he, *Lyster*, perjured himself, by denying any acquaintance with him. The next is *Coultry*, a gentleman, who is of the same opinion, because, he says, *Lyster* perjured himself respecting a horse, and made a false affidavit in the name of his brother, whom he personated. Mr. Rowan, in one of his affidavits, for he has made two, also swears to the same points: that he believes, if these two persons had attended at the trial and been examined, this witness, *Lyster*, would have been totally discredited. That he swears is his belief, and I dare say, that impression is made upon his mind. And he adds further, that from what he and his friends are daily hearing, he has no doubt of proving fully, that Lyster is deserving of no credit on his oath. These are to the first point. Touching the second point in the notice, that is, the partiality or prejudice of the jury, or some of them, William Atkinson, a watch-maker, has made an affidavit, stating that in August last, on an occasion of some illumination, he had a conversation with Mr. Perrin, one of the jurors, respecting the volunteers; and that, with respect to the body in general, he spoke with acrimonious language; but particularly with respect to Hamilton Rowan; that he and Napper Tandy deserved to be hanged, or the country would never prosper, or to that effect; and Mr. Porter swears that, since the commencement of this prosecution, and before the trial, Mr. Perrin made use of some other expressions of the same sort; and Mr. Rowan swears, that he believes that some of the jurors did, previous to this trial, use expressions tending to asperse him, therefore they were heated against him, and had impressions in their minds unfavourable to him.

With respect to the third point in the notice, Mr. Rowan swears he heard and believes that Sheriff Giffard, by whom, or by whose under-sheriff, the pannel has been arrayed, is the conductor of a paper generally understood to be a government paper; that he has a lucrative office in the revenue, and is an officer in the Dublin militia; and that he is strongly prejudiced against him, and did labour to have such a pannel arrayed, of such men as he knew were unfairly prejudiced against him. These are the affidavits touching the three grounds stated in the traverser's notice. And as to the general merits, Mr. Rowan further states, that he was present during the trial, and that he heard the evidence given by Lyster and Morton, charging him with having read, distributed and published the paper in Pardon's school, and he swears that said testimony is utterly false. This he positively swears to; but he does not, however, deny any of the particular facts alledged in the information against him; as to that he is silent, and he undertakes to contradict no fact sworn in the evidence against him, but that which I have mentioned.

Thus stand the affidavits upon which this motion is grounded. It may not be amiss to give a short history of this case, so far as we have judicial knowledge of it, in order to throw light upon the situation in which Mr. Rowan stood when his trial came on. He was arrested in consequence of the publication in question, above a year ago, and gave bail to that arrest, before Hilary 1793, *viz.* on the 20th of December, 1792, (I believe

believe I am not mistaken, but it is not very material) and the first information *ex officio*, for that is not the one on which he has been tried, was filed Hilary 1793; and now I speak of what passed in this court. On the sixth of May last, near nine months before his trial, in Easter Term, which ended the thirteenth of May, Mr. Emmet moved to vacate his recognizance: Mr. Attorney General consented. Mr. Rowan and his bail appeared in court, and it was vacated, as he was ready to be tried upon that information: next was a motion on his behalf, by the Recorder of the city of Dublin, to appoint a day for his trial in the term following; that motion was made in Trinity Term, but the Attorney General applied to the court stating, that he had discovered an error in the information, and entered a *noli prosequi*; accordingly no trial was appointed. A new information was filed, and in Michaelmas term, several weeks after the city sheriffs were chosen, a trial at bar was moved for, and a day appointed in this present term (the twenty-ninth of January). On the eleventh of November last the Attorney General moved to amend the information, by striking out one of the innuendos. The Recorder appeared on behalf of Mr. Rowan, and said he was instructed not to oppose it. On the twenty-ninth of January the trial was called on, and no challenge having been taken either to the array, or to the polls, either principal, or to the favour, the jury were sworn, and tried the cause. There were questions put to some of the jury touching their opinions, whether they had declared them or not, upon the matter in issue: one of them having said, after he was sworn, that he had given some opinion, he was withdrawn by consent; nor was it objected to by the crown lawyers; and these questions, which are said in the books to tend to reproach, were asked, and not objected to.

I must here invert the order of the points, to make it more clear, by following the order of time: the first objection then, is that stated by Mr. Rowan's affidavit to the sheriffs pannel. He swears that *Giffard*, by whom, or by whose sub-sheriff, the pannel was arrayed, is conductor of a news paper, generally considered a government paper; that he has a lucrative office in the revenue, and is in the militia; and he believes he laboured to have such a pannel arrayed, as were prejudiced against him. This I shall first consider in point of law, and then of hardship, as addressed to the discretion of the court: first then, would it have been a cause of challenge upon a demurrer? Clearly not; there is nothing certain nor ascertained in it; is it in law, a ground of challenge, that man conducts what is considered, a government news-paper? what is a government news paper in legal estimation? A chimera of the brain Is it meant to be insinuated that government, or the crown, to use a more proper expression, was at war with Mr. Rowan, or that any thing done, on the part of government, was to be injurious to him? I hope not; nor that any thing he did is to be injurious to government; I trust not I put it the other way: suppose it had been objected, on the other side, that a juror had published a paper called Mr. Rowan's paper or the Freeman's Journal, or any paper of that kind; would it be an objection that could have any weight? Undoubtedly not; no denomination of subjects, under that general name, can furnish an objection even to the prosecution.

Then again it is stated that he held an office under government, and was in the militia. If this were to be a disqualification, then mark the consequence: every sheriff in the thirty-two counties of Ireland at large, would be disqualified to return a pannel; which amounts to this absurdity, that the very grant which qualifies, by law, every sheriff to make returns, does *ipso facto* disqualify him, because the office of sheriff is under the crown: and if holding an office under the crown disqualify a man, it involves this palpable absurdity, that the very grant, which makes him, disqualifies him from acting. But it is still weaker with respect to the sheriff of Dublin, for that sheriff is not appointed immediately by the crown, but by election: however I have exposed this objection: upon the other ground I put it, that it would be absurd that the very office should be a direct disqualification, from the fulfilling of the most important duty of it. But then Mr Rowan *believes* him to be prejudiced against him, and that he laboured to return a prejudiced pannel. Would his belief be evidence of favour? Surely not; but the law, not grounded on weak suspicions, disregards such conjectures, and rejects the surmises of interested parties. Our law, also, appoints a proper time, when even legal objections can only be received. The time for challenging the array, is before *any* of the jury are sworn, and for challenging the polls, when they come to the book; but if the party accused takes his chance with the jury, he afterwards comes too late to object to them; so is the language of the law, and the manifest principle of justice. But to take it upon the point of

hardſhip, which has been inſiſted upon, there appears to be none; he had three months notice, and near two terms had elapſed, during which time he never expreſſed any diſcontent againſt the ſheriff nor ſuggeſted to the court by affidavit or otherwiſe, that the ſheriff was partial, or adverſe to him. He and his attorney muſt both have known that this man was ſheriff, and yet never applied to have the trial poſtponed, or the proceſs directed to any other officer; and even in his affidavit, made ſince the trial, which is unſupported by any other, he does not ſtate that this cauſe of complaint came to his knowledge ſubſequent to the trial; indeed the reaſon of his belief ſpeaks the contrary, namely his being the conductor of, what is called, a government paper, an officer in the militia, and in the revenue; which facts, it is preſumable, he could not have been a ſtranger to at the time of the trial.

Next comes that objection to the juror *Perrin*, in anſwer to which, what I have already ſaid, reſpecting time, that the challenge ſhould have been made before the juror was ſworn, and if a challenge had been made, there is not enough in the affidavit even ſuppoſing the facts true, to ſupport it. It is not ſworn that he made any declaration reſpecting the matter in iſſue, nor in malice, to the defendant. 2 *Hawk. P. C.* 589. *Leach's ed. Iriſh octavo*; cited by Mr. Prime Serjeant. The trior's oath illuſtrates and is applicable, it is to try, whether the jurors are indifferent upon the *matter in iſſue*; but I ſtill reſort to what I ſaid before, the objection now comes too late. A third objection goes to vitiate the verdict as unjuſt, founded upon falſe, on uncreditable teſtimony. This is a queſtion of great extent, and of great conſequence to the adminiſtration of criminal law; the object deſired is, to be let in, it is ſaid, to impeach further by new witneſſes, the credit of perſons, already attempted to be diſcredited on the trial. If that were yielded to, no verdicts for miſdemeanours againſt the traverſer could ſtand, as long as a man could be found to ſwear that the witneſs did not deſerve credit. It would be a direct and general invitation to ſuch perjury as could not be puniſhed by an indictment, and would tend to withhold a part of that evidence by which the witneſs on the firſt trial might be impeached, and hold out an invitation to perſons to offer themſelves after the trial, to diſcredit the witneſſes with ſafety, perhaps profit to themſelves. It would wound the conſtitution deeply, by transfering the juriſdiction of the jury to the court, and would totally overturn the trial by jury. It is admitted by the defendant's counſel, that no caſe has been found to authoriſe it, and the caſe cited 7 *Mod.* 57. has been ſearched for, and cannot be found: I have found a caſe in page 54, which, ſo far as it goes, is againſt him; it would be ſtrange and unjuſt if it could, but there are other caſes, which go much more ſtrongly againſt him, where it has been attempted to ſet aſide the verdict where the witneſs has been incompetent, of which the court, and not the jury, are by law the judges. *Hyan* and *Ballan* cited 7 *Mod.* 54, referred to 5 *Bacon*, was the caſe of a non-ſuit, and the court refuſed to ſet it aſide, although the deed, upon which the defendant relied, was ſworn to be a forgery; and *Turner* and *Pearte* 1 *Term Rep.* 717. is much ſtronger than this, againſt what is applied for. An application was made for a new trial upon affidavit, that five of the witneſſes produced by the party, who obtained a verdict, were incompetent, and ought not to be examined at all; there is an affidavit in anſwer, that the party who called theſe witneſſes did not know that there was any objection to them. *Aſhurſt*, J. ſaid they came too late after trial. Now there their evidence was to be conſidered as a nullity, that they never ſhould have been examined at all; not what credit they deſerved, whether more or leſs, which the jury are judges of, not the court. And in that caſe, where the matter was of law within the power of the judges, whether competent or not, though it was ſworn that five of them were intereſted, and incompetent of courſe, yet the court would not hear the objection becauſe it came too late, and Mr. Juſtice Buller, a very great lawyer, ſays "there has been no inſtance of this court's granting a new trial, on an allegation, that ſome of the witneſſes examined were intereſted, and I ſhould be very ſorry to make the firſt precedent." "There never yet has been a caſe in which the party has been permitted *after trial* to avail himſelf of any objection "which was not made at the time of the examination." Mr. Juſtice Groſe, in the ſame caſe, ſays, "In the firſt place it does not clearly appear, that the plaintiffs did not know of the objection at the time of the trial. It is ſworn very looſely; and if they knew of it, at that time, that would be a deciſive reaſon for refuſing to allow it now." And now I ſhall apply this opinion, in this caſe, to the laſt objection made by counſel, as well as to what I have already ſaid; but there it was ſaid by Mr. Juſtice Groſe, that the objection to the witneſs might be an ingredient if the party applying had merits. In 2 *Term Rep.* 113

in the case of *Vernon* and others, the assignees of *Tyler v. Hankey*, the court would not grant a new trial, to let the party into a defence, of which he was apprized at the first trial. I have cited these cases to shew, that even in case of incompetency, where the witness ought not to be permitted to stand upon the table, or open his lips,—there after trial, the court would not set aside a verdict upon that ground. But see what Mr. Rowan's affidavit is, even if it could be listened to as to his own innocence; he says, he heard the evidence of Lyster and Morton, charging him with having read, distributed and published the paper in the information, in Cope street, at Pardon's fencing school, and positively swears, that their testimony was utterly false. Now first, I say, that no trial or verdict was ever set aside, in a case like this, upon such an affidavit. It is at best the oath of the party to his own innocence; but it is not so much; here he does not deny the facts, not one of them; and let me take the words "*utterly false*" in every sense they convey; if he means false in every thing, then he has surely made an affidavit stating that he has heard the evidence of Lyster and Morton, charging him with having read, distributed and published the paper, that, he says, is utterly false. To use the expression of one of the judges in that case I cited, it is a great deal too loose; the party swearing for himself does not even contradict Lyster: he does not contradict any one of these facts specifically. I will ask, could he be found guilty of perjury, upon such loose swearing, supposing it to be false? I should think not. But it is material to another part, that this is the only part of their testimony which he has contradicted, and he might, when he undertook to contradict any of the facts, have contradicted the whole, or any other part, as far as the truth would justify him, at least upon hearsay or belief; he has not done that.

But it is urged from the bar, upon a point not stated in the notice, but from the recollection of one of the counsel, unto which no affidavit refers, that I assumed to the jury the fact of a meeting, at Cope-street, of 150 men, at which Mr. Rowan was present, which he has not contradicted; upon that I have built a strong inference of guilt, upon the presumption arising from their silence. Here I will state, as accurately as I can, what I did say; what I did not say, which has been imputed to me; in which I have the concurrence of my brethren as to their recollection. I told the jury, and meant to have told them, as far as my recollection serves me, that the observation made by one of the prosecutor's counsel, indeed by two of them, first Mr. Attorney General, and afterwards Mr. Prime Serjeant, struck me, as obvious and strong, *viz.* that the defendant did not contradict by a single witness, any one fact sworn to against him; I then stated some of the leading facts sworn to, those facts as I thought easiest to be contradicted, and those facts which brought with them, if they were true, the means of defence; for example, that there was a meeting in open day at a public fencing school, where from one to two hundred persons, many of them in volunteer uniforms, were sworn to have been present; this fact, I told them, was sworn to by two witnesses, and if the jury believed there was a meeting of the kind and number sworn to, it was to my mind, a *volume of evidence* I say so still, that the defendant did not produce any of the persons to contradict any of these facts, or prove that he did not read, publish or disperse the libel in question. He has now made an affidavit, and see the power of perverting fancy: Gentlemen argue for an hour upon affidavits, because the facts sworn to are not contradicted, and they insist upon these uncontradicted facts as truths; these six affidavits, say the counsel, are strong and uncontradicted, and therefore the facts in them must be assumed; but on the other hand, Mr. Rowan has made an affidavit, and he has not to this hour, ventured to contradict all the facts proved against him on the trial; and shall we not be at liberty in our turn, to assume upon this motion that he cannot contradict them. He swears he heard the evidence; he has not ventured to contradict any of those facts; he has not sworn that there was not a meeting of so many persons, nor any thing of that nature.

Now I will state what the evidence was: *Lyster* swore, that on the 16th December 1792, he was at *Pardon's* fencing school in Cope-street, in the city of Dublin; that there was from one to two hundred persons present in scarlet uniforms; that Napper Tandy, Hamilton Rowan, and others, were sitting at a table; the witness went in from curiosity, and he was told by Mr. Rowan, to the best of his knowledge, that no man in coloured clothes could be admitted there. He does not contradict that conversation with this man—that there was a gallery, to which he might go; that is not contradicted—that Hamilton Rowan, was very busy, and walked about with papers in his hand; these facts, let it be remembered too, that he swore upon belief

and vague recollection to the beſt of his knowledge. I told the jury this was not evidence, and ſhould be rejected; but he does not now contradict any of thoſe facts; then he goes to the publication. So it was with reſpect to *Morton*, what did I tell the jury? after ſtating the act of parliament which declares, if not gives, a power to the jury, to find upon the whole matter, which I told them they had a right to do; that the credit of the witneſſes was with them, and not with me; that they were to find, upon the whole matter in iſſue, and that they were the judges of the fact, and the intention. Did I aſſume any fact? No; that fact, as well as every other, was to be determined upon belief or diſbelief of the witneſſes. Such may not have been my identical words, but ſuch muſt have been my manifeſt meaning, and the court approved of what I ſaid. And I ſay now with certainty, I never ſaid to the jury, that the defendant's ſilence upon thoſe facts, was to ſupply any defect in the proſecutor's evidence; I diſclaim it. I did not aſſume the fact, nor did I mean or direct that the jury ſhould take it for granted that there was any meeting whatſoever.

Theſe facts were ſworn to, like the others, by two witneſſes, except the fact of publication, which was the criminal fact, and which was ſworn to by one witneſs only, and ſo I ſtated to the jury, that *Lyſter* whoſe credit was attacked, if they did not believe, I told them they ought to acquit. I then left the whole of the facts and credit of the witneſſes and the intention of the paper (if they believed the defendant publiſhed it) to the jury, who were, I told them, to determine upon the whole matter.

But ſuppoſe the fact otherwiſe, and as favourable to the defendant as his counſel wiſhed to have it taken, it cannot avail upon this motion either in law, or juſtice, or fact, or legal diſcretion; firſt it makes no part of the notice; next it ſhould have been objected to below. It was the duty of the gentleman who urged it now, and he was not remiſs, to have taken notice of it at the time; thirdly, it falls under the general rule that any objection which could have been made below, and contradicted or refuted by evidence, cannot afterwards be taken advantage of. It might have been inſtantly anſwered, qualified, contradicted, or adhered to; but in truth, the general courſe of the defence rejected all idea of diſproof, it was to juſtify that paper; and ſtanding upon that ground, it ſcorned to deny the publication, I take for granted; for no attempt was made to contradict a ſingle fact ſworn to by one or other of thoſe witneſſes. But, upon this motion, how is it to affect our diſcretion? Does it appear now that any of thoſe facts are contradicted? What are we then to judge of? Is it that manifeſt injuſtice has been done, which is the principle that governs motions for new trials. Is there any thing like a new ſubſtantive defence ſet up, which has not been made before? Is it ſaid by any of the perſons who have made affidavits here, or by the traverſer himſelf that he can by witneſſes contradict theſe facts? Not a word of any ſuch thing; and if we are to draw the ſame inference from the ſilence of the affidavits, which was drawn from not anſwering them in the arguments of the caſe; ſee how it ſtands, what he has not contradicted he has admitted—but I have no occaſion for that. This motion is addreſſed to the diſcretion of the court; that is, to the court bound by the curb of legal diſcretion, for for we cannot indulge our feelings be they what they may, and legal diſcretion, is as well aſcertained as any expreſs point of law adjudications are evidence—we are obliged to follow theſe, as evidence of what the law is. It is ſaid there is an analogy reſpecting the granting of new trials, between caſes of miſdemeanors and civil caſes, and yet, in order to determine this motion, as defendant's counſel deſire, we muſt abandon that very ground of analogy: the great principle is that, and that alone, which is recognized in *Bright* and *Eynon*, 1 *Bur.* 390, alluded to and adopted in many others, from the caſe in *Styles* to this hour—Has ſubſtantial juſtice been done? Has the party who requires a new trial been manifeſtly injured? Upon what ground is it we are to preſume an injury done to the traverſer? He has had fourteen months to prepare himſelf. In trials for their lives, men have often not more than one, and very ſeldom more than ſix months; he had fourteen—they, though confined and in priſon, are ſuppoſed to have time to defend themſelves in felonies of death—here the party at large, complains, invites, provokes the trial. Has he been ſurpriſed? Has he wanted the aid of counſel? has he been unattended with friends and followers? Look at the hiſtory of the trial. What new defence has he alledged? has he, even himſelf, contradicted the facts charged againſt him? No; from what then are we to infer, that injuſtice has been done to him? It was ſaid that whether by right or by

curteſy,

curtesy, by indulgence, or connivance, persons in his situation find a way to the matter charged against them. See how that stands: there may be very good and sufficient and proper reasons, not to disclose the name of the party swearing the information; to protect him from violence or corruption of the party sworn against. How is this case? The very thing, which most deserves to be concealed was made known to him and his agent; for the person, that is to swear against him, is disclosed to them, they trace him to the place of his birth, they enquire into his family and connections, they follow him through his private bargains and engagements, they become acquainted with his indiscreet, and perhaps immoral conduct; shall we presume, that this man, whose name was then at the foot of the examination, was unknown to him? Where are we to look for that substantial justice, by which he can protect himself on another trial? I find it no where; I find it not in the principle of the criminal law; I find it not in adjudged cases; I find it not in the sound discretion of the court; he has had every possible indulgence; he has had every latitude of defence by justification, (at the least as far as it would go) by insinuation, by address; I believe, and hope he has had, and I trust in this free country, I am not mistaken when I suffer counsel to go as large, and take as wide a range, as decent language will admit, to convey every sentiment which may assist his client: can we say the merits are not tried? Is it said the merits are in his favour? But see, as I said before, how perverting imagination can change the most common maxim: is it alledged that the juror, who is complained of, exerted himself to influence the others? that this was a case of a struggle amongst the jury? Oh! No; but the case was so clear, that there was not a minute a man in the deliberation. Then where there is not a struggle and it is not said that he did act partially, or work upon the other eleven, or that by his unjust means, the verdict was obtained; yet we are desired to step out of our way—to go unconstitutionally into the jury box, and say, that they should not have given credit to the witnesses, where the constitution gives them a power to decide. I am therefore, clearly of opinion, that the verdict cannot upon any principle of law or justice be disturbed.

Mr. Justice Boyd.—This is an application to set aside a verdict upon an information. My Lord Clonmel has stated the affidavits so much at large, that it is not necessary for me to take up much time. The counsel in the argument rested the case.

1*st*. Upon the declaration of a juror against Mr. Rowan.

2*d*. Upon the partiality of the sheriff.

3*dly*. The incredibility of *Lyster* the witness, and,

Lastly, the misdirection of the court.

As to the declaration of the juror, there are two affidavits, which state it, but it was upon a common subject; it had no relation whatever to the matter in issue; it does not appear that this declaration was malicious, and the authority in *Hawkins* establishes that a declaration to prevent a man from being a juror, must be pertinent to the matter in issue, and malicious. The declaration of *Perrin*, in my opinion, if laid before the court in proper time, was not a ground of challenge in point of law; and I must conclude it now comes too late; it was an objection merely to the favour; it is matter *in Pais*, to be determined by triors appointed; and here the court are desired to assume the province of a jury and try it here. But I think it now comes too late. In this case it does not appear, that justice has not been done, which is the true ground of setting aside verdicts. It is no where suggested, that the misconduct of this juror was the cause, by which the verdict was obtained. The shortness of the time, that the jury were withdrawn, is a strong ground to presume, they were not persuaded by him.

2*dly*, As to the charge of partiality in the sheriff, Mr. Rowan in his affidavit speaks only as to belief; he does not charge it positively. The same observation I have already mentioned, goes to this point; there was not a challenge taken to the array, on the ground of partiality in the returning officer. This being an application to the discretion of the court to set aside the verdict, the question is, has justice not been done? The charge is general upon belief; and yet the affidavit does not say, that the sheriff did procure a partial jury, or that he could procure it; and in this case, as in every other, the not making objections at the trial, is a strong ground to prevent the court from interfering, especially where the traverser in no part of his affidavit, swears he is not guilty; or has a good cause of defence to make upon a new trial, which, in my opinion, are two material grounds, in granting new trials. As to the incredibility of Lyster's evidence, I must observe that evidence was offered at the trial, which shews to demonstration, that the defendant was prepared;

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he produced three witneſſes againſt Lyſter, for he did produce Blake, Smith and Hatchell, their evidence and Lyſter and Morton, all went up to the jury; the jury have found their verdict; and this application is made to the diſcretion of the court, to ſet that verdict aſide and to grant a new trial, to let in further evidence in ſupport of that, which the jury did not credit, that is, of the witneſſes, who charge that Lyſter ought not be believed on his oath. There is no inſtance in the books to be met with to warrant ſuch a proceeding.—There are inſtances, where a court has refuſed to ſet aſide a verdict, on the ground of incompetency of the witneſſes on the former trial, becauſe the defendant had taken a chance of a verdict in his favour. Suppoſe a new trial granted, what would be the conſequence? Lyſter would be examined before another jury; with the ſuſpicion of the court of King's Bench falling upon him, that he was an incredible witneſs.

As to the miſdirection of the judge;—I attended to every word, as I always do to what falls from his lordſhip; I recollect the ſubſtance of the charge, it had my entire approbation, it was, that the defendant did not contradict, by a ſingle witneſs any one fact charged againſt him. His lordſhip ſtated ſeveral of the facts, which he thought might be diſproved, if not true; the meeting was at noon day, in a public room, and 150 perſons preſent, in uniform; the evidence of Lyſter was confirmed by Morton, but Morton had not the paper, but heard the expreſſion, "*citizen ſoldiers, to arms.*" On the whole the evidence went to the jury, but there was only one witneſs to the fact of publication. If the jury believed there was any meeting of the kind and number that was ſo mentioned, the defendant did not produce a witneſs to contradict one of the facts ſo alledged. His lordſhip did not ſay, that the defendant's ſilence was to ſupply the defects in the proſecutor's evidence. All the facts were left to the jury by the court, and each of us made ſuch obſervations as occured to him. By the verdict the jury, it appears, did give credit to the witneſſes, and did believe there was a meeting. The deſcription given of the meeting was, that there were 150 perſons preſent. Theſe were ſtrong circumſtances to go to the jury. If you believe there was a meeting, not one of thoſe perſons has been brought forward to contradict theſe aſſertions. I know of no judicial determination of any caſe ſimilar to the preſent. In this caſe, the traverſer does not ſwear he is not guilty. If this was a civil caſe, here is not ground for a good demurrer. On the whole, I concur with Lord Clonmell, that this verdict ought not to be impeached.

(To be continued.)

A Peep into the Den of Idleneſs.

YONDER! under thoſe ragged rocks, where the baleful yews waving their ſable branches of mournful cypreſs throws an awful gloom; a den dark and ghaſtly opens its horrid mouth! 'Tis there Idleneſs is lodged, the great thief of time, and deſtroyer of innocence and human felicity.

What a dreadful cave!—how it yawns amid the noiſome lakes and ſhaggy buſhes! Vices and ſins breed here; like monſters they hiſs with impudence, and howl with too late repentance. Security and Careleſſneſs, half aſleep, lay at the mouth of the den Sloth and Ignorance, joined hand in hand, ſtalk around. Hark! how their mingled yells echo in the caverns of the rocks, and drive downy-footed Silence far away! Prodigality and Wantonneſs hover aloft, and call their votaries to the ſcene of irrevocable loſs, and to the priſon of unavoidable deſtruction, which at a little diſtance opens before them: there crowds led on by Error, and intoxicated with Folly ſport to ruin.

But what frightful figure is that now emerging from the cave!—Riot and Noiſe attends him, and Bacchus (jolly god), and Venus (bewitching queen) appear in the rear. That figure is Idleneſs, for defiance appears in his looks, and temerity and effrontery are ſtampt in indelible characters on his brow. Ebriety too with flushed cheeks and ſtaggering gait appears in the group, whilſt light footed Mirth, led on by Gaiety, dance to the warbling notes of the birds of pleaſure.

All around ſee the traps and gins put up to catch the imprudent, the giddy, and the thoughtleſs! Artfully are they covered over! but Wiſdom's keen eye ſees the dangerous ſnares, and turns back with abhorrence. And ſee yonder the deceiving waters of pleaſure and filthy lakes of impurity; a ſink of vice and ſin where evil conceptions breed, and hell-bred monſters ſport in the ſordid waves: I am ſhocked to my very heart at the ſight!—Come, heaven-born Peace and meek eyed Religion, oh! come and deſtroy this horrid den, this rueful ſpot, where deſtruction ſecretly lurks, and where crowds daily unwaringly reſort to inevitable and delicious ruin.

AN OLD CORRESPONDENT.

The Political History of Europe. For the Year 1790.

CHAP. II.

(Continued from our laſt.)

DURING theſe endeavours to remedy the diſtreſſes occaſioned by the diſordered ſtate of the finances, (which took up no ſmall ſpace of time) the national aſſembly was buſily occupied in forming different parts of the new conſtitution, and particularly in framing their celebrated declaration of the rights of men and of citizens. On this laſt ſubject the aſſembly ſeemed greatly to bewilder themſelves in abſtract queſtions and metaphyſical diſquiſitions. La Fayette, whoſe principles were truly and entirely American, brought forward a declaration, which was little more or leſs than an epitome of all thoſe that had been adopted by the different members of the united ſtates. This might poſſibly have been ſo far received as to become in ſome degree a ſort of ground-work to their own, if the abbé Sieyes had not compoſed an abſtract and difficult work, in which he defined and traced the rights of man to their firſt principles. Though the abbé's friends and admirers were unſucceſsful in their ſupport of this production, they, however, procured the overthrow of La Fayette's ſyſtem; but this double failure, inſtead of operating as a diſcouragement, was ſucceeded by ſuch a multitude of plans of new declarations, that the aſſembly, embarraſſed by the variety of choice, found it neceſſary to appoint a committee in order to reduce the ſubſtance of thoſe numerous plans into one digeſt, which they might refer to, as a text book in their deliberations.

This digeſt was as far from affording ſatisfaction as the ſeparate plans of individuals. In the mean time eſſays were every day written upon the ſubject, and every man ſeemed to think it the eaſieſt thing in the world to do, that which none did. Opinions multiplied upon opinions in the aſſembly, every time the ſubject was canvaſſed; every line teemed with new difficulties; the mutual jealouſies and diſtruſts of the parties led them to ſuſpect ſome dangerous myſtery or hidden fraud to be involved in the moſt ſimple and obvious axioms; and while they reciprocally accuſed each other without ceremony, either of intending to give the reins entirely to licentiouſneſs, or of wiſhing to check the progreſs of liberty, cool debate and diſpaſſionate diſcuſſion were in ſuch circumſtances things to be wiſhed for but not expected.

A declaration which was propoſed by one of the ſections into which the aſſembly was divided, was at length ſo far received, as to become the ſubject of general debate, with a view to its affording the foundations for the grand ſuperſtructure. Every article became a ſubject of much diſcuſſion, and was not unfrequently productive of great heat and bitterneſs. The debates were exceedingly tedious and unintereſting; being in many caſes a mere war of words, running much into metaphyſical abſtractions, grammatical niceties, and verbal diſputes of no value. They were rendered ſtill more irkſome and difficult from its being ſcarcely poſſible to arrange any number of words in ſuch a form, as would equally ſtrike the ears, and be received with the ſame degree of comprehenſion, by ſo great an aſſemblage of men as twelve hundred, even ſuppoſing that they were all equally ſincere in their purſuit of the truth, and that none were prompted by particular motives to deviate from the right line of direction. It became indeed now evident, if it had been before doubted, that ſo numerous a body was by no means properly calculated for a deliberative aſſembly.

The debates were not, however, entirely confined to the ſubject or compoſition of the declaration, for one of the moſt conſiderable, and perhaps the moſt intereſting with regard to matter, aroſe upon the queſtion of adopting the meaſure, conſidered with reſpect to its expedience and propriety. It was ſaid, by thoſe who oppoſed the meaſure, that this American idea was, in fact, more brilliant than ſolid; that it originated from a new and peculiar ſtate of things, which did not exiſt with reſpect to France; but that whether it ſuited or not the circumſtances and condition of thoſe by whom it was firſt adopted, was not the queſtion to be conſidered, but whether it ſuited their own? This they endeavoured to diſprove. They ſtated in the firſt place, that ſuch a declaration, in the preſent ſtate and temper of the nation, would not only be inexpedient, but might probably prove dangerous, from an improper uſe being made of it; that the people, juſt delivered from oppreſſion, and indulging themſelves in a momentary licentiouſneſs, were unprepared for ſuch new doctrines; that when they were intoxicated with the unaccuſtomed ſpirit of independence, they would no longer acknowledge the authority of the laws, but would be too apt to conſider them only as remaining appendages of that ſyſtem of ancient tyranny, from whoſe other ſhackles they had ſo lately ſet themſelves free; and under this blind deluſion they would eagerly exert their new liberty in enforcing by violence every claim which caprice, folly, or the worſt paſſions might ſuggeſt.

They added, that in order to avoid theſe miſchiefs and dangers, which were too obvious to be overlooked by any body, the aſſembly, after involving itſelf in a taſk of great moment and expectation, would be afraid to execute, conſiſtently and properly, that difficult buſineſs which it had ſo needleſsly and wantonly undertaken; for that under theſe ſhackles it could only form a patched up, imperfect, inconſiſtent work, under the name of a declaration of rights, which would be a diſgrace to the authors as well as to the ſubject, the parts militating againſt each other, and contradicting the title, from the number of reſtraints and limitations with which, in ſuch untoward circumſtances, it muſt of neceſſity abound; and thus the mighty whole, when it came forth, inſtead of a political creed, which ſhould convert all mankind by the juſtneſs and ſimplicity of its principles, would prove an inſignificant, incoherent, contradictory jargon. They ſaid, the aſſembly, by this premature attempt, would find

itſelf

itſelf involved in other difficulties which it did not ſeem aware of, with reſpect to the great caution which was to be uſed in not confining its own powers of legiſlation, and the danger of a contradiction between general principles and particular laws; this muſt occaſion their declaration of thoſe principles to be timid and circumſpect, if not equivocal; and the production will appear to be merely the offspring of their preſent neceſſities, and of the ruling prejudices of the moment.

Were it not better, therefore, ſaid they, to defer your declaration of rights, until the conſtitution is completed and eſtabliſhed? We ſhall then have it in our power to appropriate the one to the other, and to make them harmonize together.—A ſhrewd queſtion was put by Malouet: "Why," ſaid he, "ſhould we tranſport men to the ideal ſummit of a mountain, and ſhew them the extenſive domain of their rights beneath, when we ſhall moſt aſſuredly be obliged to make them deſcend, and to bring them into the real world, where they will find every ſtep fettered with reſtraints."

The much more numerous party who ſupported the meaſure, hooted at and ſcoffed the idea of ſuppoſing danger in enlightening the public, and communicating to them a knowledge of their rights. It was not difficult, eſpecially in the preſent ſtate of things, to find a circle of common place arguments upon this head.—That it had been the old trick of deſpotiſm in all ages and places to keep the people ignorant, in order to rivet their chains the more firmly, and to render their ſlavery eternal. They talked in lofty language, but not always eaſily underſtood, about the native rights of man, which, they ſaid, are eternal, inalienable, and impreſcriptible; that their ſource is in nature itſelf; that they are equal and unchangeable in every age and every country, and can never yield to any reaſon of convenience or neceſſity. That, as the ſole object of ſociety is the preſervation of theſe rights, to declare what they are, is an indiſpenſable preliminary to the eſtabliſhment of a political conſtitution. That the repreſentatives of the people are ſpecially called upon to declare them, becauſe it is their duty to lay the foundations before they raiſe the edifice; to eſtabliſh principles before they draw concluſions; to fix upon a determinate and invariable end, before they make choice of the means by which it is to be obtained. That it is neceſſary to declare them, in order that the people may underſtand and decide upon the motives of their legiſlators; that our ſucceſſors may tread in our footſteps, and, ſeeing clearly our object, and comprehending fully the ſcope of our deſign, may be enabled to bring our work to perfection; and that other nations may be made ſenſible by our precepts of the injuries they ſuffer, and may learn by our example how to redreſs them. It is a debt which France owes to mankind.

This celebrated declaration of rights has been ſo long before the world, and has every where, particularly in his country, been already ſo much diſcuſſed, that any obſervation now upon it would not only be needleſs, but could ſcarcely avoid being a repetition of what has been already ſaid. It was allowed by all parties, even in France, to contain much good matter, and the nobles and clergy acknowledged that many of its articles were excellent. Conſidered as a compoſition, it bears evident marks of haſte, and is by no means a regular and homogeneous work. Sometimes it announces rights; again it preſcribes reſtraints: here it anticipates the objects of legiſlation; and there it directs an attack againſt deſpotiſm, which it could not conſiſtently ſuppoſe to exiſt. It was not till the end of Auguſt that the production was finiſhed.

Perhaps there was ſcarcely leſs truth than wit in Mirabeau's obſervation on this declaration, "That it would anſwer no other purpoſe than that of a political almanack for the current year."

Through this whole courſe, the aſſembly was divided into a number of ſections or committees, to each of which was aſſigned ſome ſpecified part of the new conſtitution, on which it was to give its opinion and advice in a report, which then became a ſubject of general diſcuſſion. But in thus ſettling the conſtitution, a queſtion (as all things were now unhinged) neceſſarily aroſe, which ſerved more to divide the opinions and to agitate the minds of men than any other; this was the grand queſtion, What ſhare of authority it was fitting the king ſhould poſſeſs in the new legiſlature? This operated like a touchſtone. In other matters, the different orders and parties were conſtantly divided among themſelves, but now, every man found himſelf under a neceſſity of avowing and ſupporting his principles, or of giving them up for ever. What had never happened before, the preſident now ſaw, on his right hand and on his left, the whole aſſembly arranged in two grand hoſtile diviſions, and theſe ſo nearly poiſed in point of number, that the moſt experienced eye could not determine on which ſide the advantage might lie. The conflicts were ſo hard fought on both ſides, ſo often renewed, and ſo long continued, and the ſubject of debate ſo induſtriouſly ſpread and univerſally known, that the whole nation became parties in the conteſt, and the diſſention and agitation was not leſs among the people at large, than it was within the walls of the aſſembly. All the paſſions which had hitherto been in ſome degree ſmothered, now burſt forth with greater force from their reſtraint, and many ſprung from recent cauſes, appeared in all the ardour of juvenility. Rabaut owns, that every debate in the aſſembly was now a quarrel; and the heat and violence without was ſtill greater.

On the one ſide were arranged, in the firſt inſtance, thoſe who had at all times conſidered the ſovereign as the ſole and rightful legiſlator; with theſe were joined thoſe who, without entering into the abſtract principle, were from habit or opinion attached to monarchy, and who were ſtruck with dread and horror at the ſudden torrent of republicaniſm which now ſo ſuddenly overſpread the land; to theſe were to be added the ſmaller band, who felt themſelves attached by affection to the king's perſon, and that much more numerous, which, from intereſted motives, found itſelf bound at all events to the ſupport of kingly

kingly government. But the great force on that side was a new accession; being composed of the nobility and clergy, who, though reduced in power, were still respectable, if not formidable, from their number, as well as from what still remained of their influence. These, become at length sensible of the baleful effect of their past tergiversation, reflecting in bitterness of heart upon the manner in which both orders had been alternately duped by the commons, and led blindly to play their own game into their hands, and clearly perceiving now that nothing less than their final ruin was intended, were equally convinced that nothing could avert that ruin, but the retaining of so much power in the hands of the king, as might prove some check to the prevailing system, and enable him to interpose with effect in their preservation.

On the other side was opposed, in much closer and firmer array, and much better officered and commanded, the whole body of republicans throughout the kingdom, who, notwithstanding the innumerable divisions into which they were formed, and the great distance by which the parts were separated, were so intimately connected, and their correspondence and union so perfectly established, that their general movements displayed the facility which might have been expected from those of a single individual. With these were joined no small number of men, who stood in the very odd predicament, that though they joined the republicans in every thing, they were notwithstanding attached to some undefined or unknown species of monarchy, but were unable to decide in themselves what that should be; these having no other principle of union or action than one common fear, that the crown might recover its former preponderance and power, could see no other evil or danger whatever; but that was so strongly fixed in their minds, that it seemed difficult to assign what degree of humiliation or weakness it could be reduced to, which would prove sufficient to remove their apprehensions. Under this impression, although they were directly adverse to republicanism in principle, their conduct produced the same effect as if they had been the warmest and most determined zealots in the cause; nor were they awakened from this delusion till the business was over, when their opinion and action were become as useless as their repentance.

But that great power which overruled all others in the kingdom, that turbulent metropolis which contained within its old walls a very numerous and a most peculiar nation, was not only sufficient to turn but directed the management of the scale in all cases as it liked. Paris, therefore, little needed the aid of Rennes in Brittany, and several other of the more considerable cities and towns, which having received the same republican bias, were, however inferior in strength, scarcely less zealous in the cause.

One of the questions which arose upon this subject, and which was the longest and the most violently agitated, both within and without the assembly, was that relative to the king's *veto*, or negative, upon the passing of laws. The difference between the two parties upon this question was so wide, that it seemed scarcely possible they could ever meet or unite; for while one brought reasons to shew that this authority in the crown was indispensably necessary to the public interest, in order to preserve a check upon the tumultuary nature of public assemblies, and prevent their passing not only without due consideration, but under the influence perhaps of the most sudden and outrageous passions, laws, which from their absurdity, their iniquity, or impolicy, might draw on national disgrace, public injustice, or even foreign danger. On the other side, the retaining of this power in the king's hands, it was represented, would be the means of overthrowing every thing that had yet been done for the liberty and good of the people; that by this negative, without assigning reason or motive for his conduct, he might obstruct those measures which were of the highest utility to the people, merely to favour the intrigues of his court, or the machinations of his ministers; that by thus impending or arresting the operations of the assembly, the great work of regeneration, which the people now so confidently expected, would be rendered impracticable, and all their hopes frustrated; that if the ill effects of this dangerous power did not even immediately take place, they would not be the less certain when the proper season arrived for their operation; that when the present vigilance of the people and their representatives was relaxed, and means used to lull them into a fatal security, then the king might suddenly, at his pleasure, inflict a paralytic stroke upon the legislative body, which would disable and render it totally useless. And that, in fact, this *veto* was a never-failing instrument of tyranny, and the most odious and dangerous relick of ancient despotism which could possibly be retained.

The question was branched out into several parts. After they had been occupied in the first instance to make such provision as should prevent the operation of the *veto* with respect to the acts of the present assembly, the clear discernment of Mounier shewed that this was mere waste of time, the subject not admitting of a question; for the present assembly being appointed by the nation, for the special purpose of framing a constitution, it was thereby placed in a situation different, with respect to the royal negative, from what its successors might be; the real fact being, that the royal power, during their performance of that duty, was, of necessity, virtually though not formally suspended: so that their constituent acts were not to depend upon the king's pleasure or sanction—they required his direct acceptance, which could not be refused.

The first part of the subject being thus disposed of, the possible or probable future consequence of the royal sanction's being retained or abolished, became the subject of discussion; and another question sprung from this, If the king is allowed to have a negative upon laws, shall that negative be final, or shall it only be suspensive for a limited time?

In the mean time, the secondary agents or leaders of the populace in Paris began to interfere openly on the question of the *veto*, and on all the other points relative to the constitution, which

were then agitated by the assembly; while the crowds in their own galleries became every day more insolent and outrageous, drowning the voice of those members whom they did not like, by hootings and revilings, and endeavouring to overawe them by insult and menace; while long lists of members who were marked to be proscribed, were dispersed not only in the capital, but through every part of the kingdom.

The popular fermentation in Paris was rising to the highest pitch. All the old manœuvres which had produced such extraordinary effect in the preceding months of June and July, were renewed in the gardens of the palais royal, and in the adjoining political coffee-houses. The turbulent St. Huruge (formerly an officer in the king's service) but noted for the great share which he had held in all the disturbances of the capital, proposed to send a deputation to Versailles, to insist that the king, the dauphin, and the national assembly, should reside at Paris; and sent deputies to the Hotel de Ville, to demand the approbation of the representatives assembled there to this measure. The Hotel de Ville, under the influence of M. Bailly, the mayor, together with La Fayette, behaved with sense and spirit upon this occasion: the former strongly prohibited all tumultuous assemblies; and La Fayette, by the assistance of his national guards, gave effect to the decree, by committing St. Huruge, Tinlot, and some of the most violent motion-makers and agitators to prison.—Thus was sedition for a short space checked.

The counts of Clermont Tonnere, Lally Tollendal, with Mounier, and other men of eminence, made heavy complaints in the national assembly of those rebellious attempts against the freedom of the king, and of that body itself; as well as those lists of proscription which were every where spread, including the names of all those members who wished well to the project of two chambers, or who supported the royal negative; and of the anonymous letters which they daily received, threatening them with destruction.

Mirabeau, and some of his friends, said they had received letters equally violent and threatening, for voting against tithes; and the first affected to treat with the greatest contempt and ridicule the panic terrors to which certain cowardly members were liable. The assembly, according to its established custom in all cases relative to that people, passed over the insults of the Parisians, without shewing the smallest spirit, and thereby became liable to the necessary consequence, of being exposed to still greater insults in future.

For some time past, but particularly since the late animosities which had arisen among the parties, stories of plots and conspiracies had been most unaccountably spread through every part of the kingdom, and deeply affected the minds of the people. Some of these were charged directly upon the court, among which the intended escape of the king and the royal family from Versailles to Metz, formed the principal figure. Others were charged upon the aristocratic party, who were supposed to intend the restoration of the king to his former power, merely to render him an instrument for the attainment of their own ends, and for further securing what they attained. How far these plots were real or pretended, it is impossible at present to decide. There certainly never was a period or a country in which fabrications of this sort, however false, and however palpably inconsistent and absurd, would have been received with greater avidity, or credited with less enquiry, than France at this time. It is likewise to be remembered, that ideas of plots were at this time highly necessary to the prevailing party; and we have seen, that they possessed means, which have not often been equalled, of making such impressions on the public mind as they deemed necessary.

On the other hand, it would be idle to suppose that the multitude of men, whose situation and condition in life had been so suddenly and totally changed, must not be much discontented, and that they would not readily embrace any well-founded scheme for the recovery of what they had lost; so that we may take it for granted, that there would have been an abundance of plotters, if there had been any feasible plot formed. But the total defect of evidence to prove the existence of any, at a time when the discovery was so eagerly sought, and so much depended on the proof, strongly indicate that these reports and alarms were mere political fabrications, calculated to answer certain purposes, and to produce certain obvious effects. Indeed the state of public affairs, the temper that prevailed throughout the country, and the arms in the hands of the peasantry, all concurred in rendering it impossible for the aristocrates to form any rational and well-founded scheme, for the present recovery of their affairs. It is not to be doubted but that they were guilty of great indiscretions; and that in their cups, through their habitual looseness of speech, and natural turn for boasting, they said many things which they never thought of when sober. This was in character, and to be expected.

The reports, however, produced the same effect in one respect, as if the plots had been real, by exciting a great and general ferment through the nation. It was not to be expected that the Parisians, ever credulous, and ever suspicious, should be the last that were thus affected. Every thing began to bear a most dangerous appearance in that city, and all who had witnessed their late violences, had every thing now to apprehend; and a second explosion like that of the Bastile seemed already in view. The king's *veto* was, however, the present ostensible cause of tumult. If that was allowed, the clergy and nobles, they cried, will renew all their power;—"We must act, and instantly too, else, in three days, France will be enslaved." In the height of this ferment, two violent resolutions, which were transmitted from the towns of Rennes and Dinant, produced a similar effect to what a large quantity of oil poured upon a fire already raging might have done.

In this state of things the king, ever disposed to accommodate and conciliate, in the hope of restoring quiet, and if possible of establishing good temper, determined to soften matters with respect to

to the *veto*; a conceſſion which came the better from him, as the aſſembly were involved in a ſort of a dilemma from their own paſt declaration, that his ſanction was neceſſary to the paſſing of laws, ſo that they could not with any propriety proceed to thoſe extremities on the ſubject, which the moſt violent of the republican party wiſhed. Neckar was accordingly diſpatched to the aſſembly with a memoire, propoſing a *veto* which ſhould only have the power of ſuſpending laws during one or two legiſlatures. This was received with evident ſatisfaction, excepting by ſome of the moſt violent of thoſe who ſupported (not the king, but) the ſovereignty, who would not admit any modification of the *veto*, and inſiſted that he had been ill adviſed by his miniſters in propoſing the conceſſion. They being, however, over-ruled, it was at length agreed, that the king ſhould have the power to ſuſpend a law during two legiſlatures; but, that if the third aſſembly perſiſted in it, he ſhould then be obliged to give his ſanction.

It was a curious circumſtance in Mirabeau's conduct, that while he ſupported the royal *veto* with the utmoſt vehemence of his character, and that one of the beſt ſpeeches he ever made was upon that ground, his emiſſaries in Paris were inſtructed to perſuade the people that he oppoſed it with all his might; and to ſupport the deluſion, he took care to quit the aſſembly juſt before the diviſion, that his vote might not appear as a record againſt it.

Another buſineſs of not leſs importance underwent at the ſame time a courſe of long and great diſcuſſion. This was, "whether the national aſſembly ſhould be compoſed of one or two chambers?" The committee of conſtitution had already given their opinion upon this ſubject, by recommending a ſenate and a houſe of repreſentative, each of which ſhould poſſeſs a negative upon the proceedings of the other. This, or ſomething like it, bearing ſome reſemblance to the Britiſh conſtitution, was, as we have formerly ſeen, the favourite ſcheme with Lally, Clermont, and the other leaders of the moderate party, who, equally zealous with the republicans, for the eſtabliſhment of a free government, conſidered a limited monarchy, with a conſtitution ſo formed as that the principal parts ſhould operate as mutual and perpetual checks upon each other, as affording the faireſt proſpect for the attainment and permanence of that object.

It may be eaſily underſtood, that the party who now held all power excluſively in their own hands, and ruled the nation as they willed, without any reſponſibility upon their conduct, were little diſpoſed to ſubmit to the laying of any checks or reſtraints upon their proceedings. It would have been as if the long parliament in England, after aboliſhing the houſe of lords, had then appointed another body to be its ſubſtitute in controlling their own arts. It is ſaid, and the fact is affirmed to be now publicly known, that the influence, public opinion, and patriotic diſintereſted character of the leaders of the moderate party, having rendered their ſanctions and countenance highly neceſſary in many of the late arrangements, they had been artfully amuſed and led along with an idea that their favourite ſcheme of two chambers and of mutual checks was ſo rational and neceſſary a meaſure, that in ſettling the conſtitution it muſt be generally agreed to.

It is not to be forgotten, that the minds of the people had been already poiſoned in an extreme degree upon the ſubject of the three chambers, which they were taught to conſider as the great land-marks of deſpotiſm, and as utterly incompatible with every ſcheme of reform, and every principle and hope of liberty. This prejudice was eaſily directed againſt any plurality of chambers; againſt two, as well as againſt any greater number. It was like the cry of "A mad dog!" The people accordingly took a moſt decided part in the buſineſs; eſpecially thoſe in the galleries, and the Pariſians. They muſt be ſceptical indeed who are in any great doubt, whether preſent means were wanting to excite this fermentation. Even in the aſſembly, every power diſtinct from that of the repreſentatives of the people at large was branded with the name of ariſtocracy; and ſenates were rendered odious by being indiſcriminately compared to that of Venice. A ſchiſm likewiſe aroſe, as uſual, among thoſe parties, who were bound by every principle of reaſon and policy to have acted with one accord; moſt of the nobility and clergy voting againſt the meaſure, becauſe they thought it would entirely preclude the renewal at any future time, of their old favourite ſyſtem of ſitting in three orders. The very reaſon, if it had been valid, why the friends of the new conſtitution ſhould have ſupported the meaſure.

Under all theſe circumſtances, within and without, the queſtion of one or two chambers was finally put to the vote, when only eighty-nine members voted for two chambers, againſt a majority of above nine hundred. Although it is evident that the meaſure muſt have been rejected without any external violence, yet it is not incurious to ſee the freedom of ſuffrage which prevailed in this new temple of liberty. Of this, excluſive of liſts of proſcription and incendiary letters, we have two ſpecific inſtances: The firſt is from Lally Tolendal, who aſſerts, that ſeveral Members of the popular ſide ſaid to him individually, "Would you have me expoſe my wife and children to be murdered by the mob?" The ſecond is from Mounier, who declares, that different members came to him to beg certificates that they had not given unpopular votes, as they had heard their country ſeats were to be burnt. Sept. 10, 1789.

The aſſembly likewiſe decreed, that the legiſlative body ſhould be renewed every two years by election, and that this biennial period ſhould be denominated a legiſlature. This meaſure of limitting the term of each convention to two years, was founded on the prejudices derived from that numerous body of Engliſh writers, who conſtantly repreſent our ſeptennial parliaments as fraught with the greateſt dangers to the ſtate, and as actually productive of all our public evils. The effects produced by the adoption of this guarded meaſure in France will appear in its time.

It was about this time, that the aſſembly received a letter, written directly in the king's name, in which, after approving of the general

ſpirit of their determinations, he, however, declared, that there were a few articles to which he could give only a conditional aſſent; promiſing, however, to modify or renounce his own opinions, if convinced by the obſervations of the national aſſembly. He then remarked on the hardſhip of aboliſhing, without any compenſation to the landlord, thoſe rents, which had once, indeed, been paid as a compenſation for perſonal ſervitude, but which, having been ſettled between the lords and their vaſſals ages ago, had ſince frequently changed hands, had been exchanged, or bought and ſold for a valuable conſideration, without the purchaſers obſerving or thinking of the odious origin of their titles.

The king then took notice in his letter of the danger of offending, and the impropriety of offering wrong and injury to ſeveral of the German princes, who held great feudal poſſeſſions in Alſace, and ſome of the neighbouring territories, which were guaranteed to them by the moſt ſolemn treaties; but whoſe eſtates and property were all indiſcriminately involved in the general effect of the decree for the reform of the feudal ſyſtem. He concluded by obſerving the various difficulties which would attend the unconditional abolition of tythes, without making an honourable proviſion for the clergy, and laying the burden of their ſubſiſtence equally upon all claſſes of the citizins.

This letter was ill received, and occaſioned much general diſcontent; not on account of its matter, which, whether agreed to or not, none could pretend to be unreaſonable, but on account of the interference of the executive power in attempting to influence the legiſlative, by entering into a diſcuſſion of laws which it was only called upon to give a ſanction to; or, in this inſtance, as being parts of the new conſtitution, merely to accept. The conſequence may be eaſily judged. The king was obliged to give his ſanction ſimply, without obſervation or comment; and the principle was eſtabliſhed or avowed, that ſo far from ſuſpending, he could not even offer his advice upon, much leſs criticiſe the meaſures of the preſent legiſlature. The aſſembly, however, paid ſo much attention to him as to ſend word, that in the future diſcuſſion or carrying into act the principles to which he objected, they would conſider, and pay a proper regard to the opinions he had given.

In the mean time, things were tending faſt to an unexampled criſis, which was to produce a new and extraordinary face of affairs. The violent republicans, both within and without the aſſembly, had it long in contemplation, and were now determined, that by ſome means or other, the reſidence both of the court and of the national aſſembly ſhould be transferred from Verſailles to Paris. This deſign being known, the court, and particularly the queen, were ſtruck with horror at the idea of being compelled to reſide among ſo tumultuous a people, who from their bloody acts of cruelty had already been ſtigmatized in the public prints by the name of the cannibals of Paris. At the ſame time, that the nobility might have no doubt remaining as to their impending and abſolute ruin, they were regaled in every coffee-houſe with writings, in which the ſtrongeſt hopes were expreſſed, that in a very ſhort time, the term 'nobility' would for ever be baniſhed from the French language. Under theſe circumſtances on both ſides, it is not to be doubted (although the fact has in no degree been proved) that the queen liſtened eagerly to any propoſal for removing the court to ſome reaſonable diſtance, which might prevent that, to her, moſt dreadful of all events, the being committed to the jealous and dangerous cuſtody of the frantic, uncontrolled, and ever ſuſpicious Pariſians; nor will it be doubted, on the other hand, their character conſidered, that many raſh and imprudent things were ſaid or propoſed by the diſcontented nobles.

As correlative to this ſtate of things, the moſt atrocious accuſations, which the bittereſt rancour could imagine, were unſparingly laid by each party againſt the other. The nobles and clergy were every day charged with new conſpiracies againſt the revolution; and each garniſhed with its peculiar circumſtances of alarm or of horror. It was ſeriouſly and confidently aſſerted, as if the writer had himſelf ſeen it, that a ſubſcription was ſecretly opened for the murder of all good citizens; and that prieſts and nobles were the ſubſcribers to this bloody inſtrument of proſcription. It was further ſaid, that it was reſolved once more to inveſt Paris and Verſailles with an army, to diſſolve, ſword in hand, the national aſſembly, and to kindle in every part of the empire the flames of civil war. On the other ſide a charge was openly laid, by men of eminence, who did not ſhrink from ſupporting it, that the violent republicans were reſolved, at the hazard of murder and civil war, to compel the king and the national aſſembly to reſide within the walls of Paris, and thus render both, and through them the whole nation, ſubſervient to the influence, and inſtruments to the caprice of that turbulent capital.

The rebellious French guards, who had deſerted and fought againſt their ſovereign, and who were now in the actual pay of the city of Paris, under the denomination of center companies, were ſeized (unleſs it proceeded from ſome hidden cauſe) with a moſt unaccountable fit of ambition, to have again the honour of attending and guarding the king's perſon, which they claimed as an undoubted right, and even talked of marching to Verſailles to enforce the claim. St. Huruge, who was now at liberty, was the chief inſtigator and caballer in this matter. It will be eaſily judged that, excluſive of the apparent danger of entruſting the king's perſon in ſuch hands, nothing could be more perſonally odious or mortifying to him, than to be compelled to endure the ſight and attendance of men, who had already ſo ſhamefully trampled upon their oaths, and violated all the bonds of military ſubordination, duty as ſoldiers, and loyalty as ſubjects.

The only protection the king could rely on in caſe of any ſudden incurſion from Paris, or of any ſudden attack from the rabble of Verſailles (who were only ſecond to their brethren in the capital in all acts of violence and cruelty) reſted in his *gardes des corps*, a regiment formed upon the ſame principles with our ancient Engliſh life guards, being

ing compoſed entirely of gentlemen; upon which account, they were at this time peculiarly deteſted by the people. He was likewiſe attended by the national guards of Verſailles, who had placed themſelves for that purpoſe under the command of D'Eſtaing; but their principles were known to be too deeply infected by thoſe of the community to which they belonged, to warrant the ſmalleſt confidence being placed in their protection. It appears that letters from La Fayette to D'Eſtaing, indicative of ſome approaching or apprehended danger, had been communicated by the latter to the municipal committee of Verſailles, who were accordingly perſuaded to demand an additional regiment, in order to protect the town from any ſudden violence. The compliance with this requeſt, which was not obtained without difficulty, and the conſequent ſending for the regiment of Flanders to perform that duty, were the common, and, in all other caſes, indifferent and innocent circumſtances, which, under the fatality of the preſent times, opened the way to all the horrid miſchiefs which ſo ſpeedily enſued.

(To be continued.)

Iriſh Parliamentary Intelligence.

(Continued from our laſt.)

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

TUESDAY—FEB. 4, 1794.

THE houſe met and adjourned.

5.] Sir *L. Parſons*, after a ſhort ſpeech, moved, "that an addreſs be preſented to his excellency the lord lieutenant, praying him to lay before his majeſty the humble deſire of the houſe, praying that his majeſty would be graciouſly pleaſed to order, that copies of the ſeveral treaties and conventions formed by his majeſty with foreign powers, and laid by his majeſty's orders before the parliament of Great Britain, be laid before this houſe."

This motion being ſeconded by Mr. W. Tighe, brought on a debate which continued above four hours.

It was ſupported by Mr. Duquery, Mr. Curran, Mr. Brook, Mr. Maxwell, Mr. Egan, Dr. Brown, and the hon. Mr. Stuart, on the ground of the right of the Iriſh parliament to inveſtigate the motives and conduct of the war; and it was oppoſed by the Chanc. of the Exchequer, the Attorney Gen. Mr. Ormſby, Mr. Archdall, Mr. Marcus Beresford, ſir John Blaquiere, colonel Blaquiere, the hon. Mr. Weſley, Mr. Barrington, Mr. Cooke, the hon. Mr. Pery, lord Headford, the hon. D. Browne, Mr. Grattan, and Mr. G. Ponſonby.

The houſe divided near ten o'clock;

Ayes,	9
Noes,	128

Tellers for the former, ſir Laurence Parſons and Mr. Tighe; and for the latter, Mr. Marcus Beresford and the hon. Mr. Weſley.

Then the houſe reſolved into a committee of ſupply, the right hon. Mr. Maſon in the chair.

The *Chanc. of the Excheq.* ſtated the eſtimates to be at 1,820,000l. the whole of which, he ſaid, might not eventually be neceſſary, as he doubted not very conſiderable ſavings would be effected: and adviſed that 8 or 900,000l. of this money ſhould be raiſed by a loan, in order to avoid the neceſſity of taxation as much as poſſible.

Having gone through the ſeveral eſtimates until he came to that of ordnance,

Sir *L. Parſons* ſaid, he did not feel competent to ſay in what ſtate the ſum propoſed might place the ordnance of this country: he feared that miniſters reſted in a fatal ſecurity and imaginary ſafety againſt the danger of invaſion; but if any fatality ſhould occur to the public ſafety of the country, he pledged himſelf by the bleſſing of God, to uſe his exertions for bringing the delinquent miniſter to the ſcaffold.

Mr. *Cooke*, ſec. at war, reported that the eſtimates on this head had been formed on the returns made by the beſt experienced officers in the kingdom, touching the beſt mode of putting the country in a ſtate of defence; and that it was now in a very reſpectable ſtate.

The committee having gone through, the houſe reſumed, and adjourned.

6.] Mr. *Maſon* reported the reſolutions of the committee of ſupply, which were ſeverally agreed to by the houſe.

7.] The houſe reſolved into a committee of ways and means, right hon. Mr. Maſon in the chair.

The *Chanc. of the Exchq.* moved the ſeveral reſolutions relative to the duties on the poſtage of letters; and alſo for the ſeveral duties on hearths, which are all the ſame as in laſt year.

Ordered that a committee be appointed to take into conſideration the ſtate of the turnpike-road from Dublin to the town of Navan.

And another committee for the road leading from the town of Kilbeggan to the town of Athlone.

The *Chanc. of the Exchq.* obſerved, that it had been uſual to thank the ſpeaker for his ſpeech to the lord lieutenant on preſenting the money bills, but this had been omitted laſt ſeſſions on account of the adjournment of the houſe. He therefore moved, that the thanks of the houſe be given to Mr. Speaker, for his excellent ſpeech on preſenting the money bills laſt ſeſſions, and that the ſaid ſpeech be printed—both theſe motions were carried unanimouſly.

Ordered that a bill be brought in for the better preventing and puniſhing mutiny and deſertion in his majeſty's forces.

8.] Mr. *Maſon* made his report from the committee of ways and means; and the reſolutions concerning the poſt duties on hearths being ſeparately read, were agreed to by the houſe.

The houſe then went again into the committee of ways and means, and reſolved ſundry reſolutions reſpecting the cuſtoms inwards, on commodities imported from Great Britain.

Mr. *Neville* brought in the bill for the improvement of the harbour of Wexford, and building a bridge over the Slaney—read a firſt time, and ordered to be read again on Monday.

Mr.

Mr. *Wolfe* (Forenaughts) presented a petition from the undertakers of the Shannon navigation to the falls of Killaloe, and a plan of the intended work—the prayer of the petition was for a charter of incorporation, and they offered to carry goods at one penny per ton per mile on the navigation, and a halfpenny per ton on the lake—this petition was referred to a committee, who are to examine the allegations, and report their opinion to the house.

10.] Mr. *Grattan* rose, not, he observed, for the purpose of making any motion. Some days since, he had presented a petition on behalf of the weavers concerned in the cotton manufacture, the prayer of which was, to reduce the duty on the importation of cotton wool, to a par with that paid on importation of the same commodity into Great Britain. He was recently informed, that should the proposed reduction of duty take place, though it might benefit the weaver, it would in a very great degree prejudice the proprietors of cotton-mills—for his part, he had not yet formed an opinion upon the subject, which he wished to have disposed of in one way or other before the house should resolve itself into a committee of ways and means. There was an order of the day for going into such committee, which he hoped would be postponed, as it would preclude discussion upon a manufacturing question. He then proceeded to suggest the idea to government of resorting to the means of establishing INDEPENDENT COMPANIES, as in England, for the defence of the nation. He did not intend to propose any specific motion; but wished gentlemen to have it in contemplation. Lastly, he proposed the first open day for bringing forward the subject of equalizing the duties payable by Great Britain on the several articles of import and export, and of adjusting the commerce of the two countries. It was understood that Thursday next was the day upon which the house would enter upon the discussion.

The *Chanc. of the Excheq.* thought the notice given by the right hon. gentleman rather short. As to the case of the cotton manufacturers, he had no objection to keep the committee of ways and means open until it should be settled in the most adviseable manner. But as to the suggestion of the establishment of independent companies, he could wish that it had been made at the commencement of the session, instead of then, when they were about to open the committee of ways and means. Whatever the system was, it ought to have been proposed before the supply was voted. He had the same objection, the shortness of the notice, to enter upon the extensive subject of the adjustment of the commerce of the two countries, as it was not to be expected that gentlemen should debate public questions when so suddenly brought forward, that no time was allowed for acquiring due information.

Mr. *Secretary Douglas* said, that the suggestion of the right hon. gentleman, relative to the establishment of independent companies, from its nature and importance, was certainly deserving of the most serious attention; and he hoped, therefore, that it would be understood as under the consideration of government.

Sir *L. Parsons* declared himself happy that the right hon. gentlemen so fully coincided in opinion. He was proceeding to speak, when

The Speaker informed sir Laurence Parsons that he was out of order. The question before the house was, that the committee on the cotton manufacture should be instructed to hear evidence on behalf of the proprietors of cotton mills. He put the question accordingly, which was agreed to.

Sir *L. Parsons* allowed the Speaker to be perfectly correct; but he thought it hard that when other gentlemen were heard, not on the subject of the cotton manufacture, but on the defence of the nation, that he should be refused the same favour. The sentiments of both gentlemen fully proved the position which he had laid down on a former night in the committee of supply, that Ireland was by no means in a proper state of defence for repelling a foreign invasion. However gentlemen might differ upon abstract political questions, however they might dislike ministers or their measures, the great point of putting the nation in a respectable state of defence, was one in which they should all unite.—What else was there to which we look for protection for our lives, our properties, the constitution which we possess, or the government under which we live? The right hon. gentlemen might prefer the expedient of independent companies for the purpose of either augmenting the army or the militia, he cared not, he should concur in the means, provided the end which he had in view was likely to be accomplished.

Mr. *Secretary Douglas* denied that he had expressed any opinion whatever upon the suggestion of establishing independent companies in this country. He conceived that they were to be officered by the crown, and that they were to be subject to the same law as the militia forces. Conceiving the suggestion in this manner, I thought it my duty to hope that it would be understood as under the consideration of government.

The order for going into the committee of ways and means being read,

The *Chancellor of the Exchequer* observed, that he had not the pleasure of seeing some of his friends in the revenue department near him, nor had he any opportunity of consulting them upon many articles upon which their information might be highly necessary. He should therefore move that the order be discharged, and a new one substituted for to-morrow, when he should be able to let the house and the nation know what the new taxes to be proposed were.—Ordered.

Mr. *Vandeleur* observed, that the committee to whom was referred an inquiry into the expenditure of 70001. by the directors of the royal canal, were of opinion that the whole sum had been expended, and though they might have objections to the manner in which it was done, doubts had been entertained whether they were competent to enter into the conduct of the parties concerned?—He therefore moved, that the said committee be empowered to enquire into the conduct of the directors of the royal canal, the state of the docks, and the time likely to elapse before the work shall be completed. Agreed to.

Read a third time the bill for building a bridge over the river Slaney, near the town of Wexford.

[*To be continued.*]

Limerick

POETRY.

*LIMERICK BEAUTIES**.

Miſs L . f . . y.

HER modeſt bluſh, her gentle eyes conſpire,
In every breaſt, to kindle Love's fierce fire.

Miſs C . . . f . . .

Who can behold that face without ſurprize,
Or who withſtand th' artillery of thoſe eyes.

Miſs B . t . . r.

With native beauty, all the helps of art,
Combine to captivate the lover's heart.

Miſs K . . . . t.

Dorcas will always pleaſe for wit and ſenſe,
With leſs of beauty we may well diſpenſe.

Miſs S . . m . . r.

Sweet Fanny's fair, without deſign
Rules without noiſe, and makes her ſway divine.

Miſs N . . h.

We liſten, when a cherub ſings.

K. C. M.

On the Death of Mrs. Elizabeth Edwards, late of Exchequer-ſtreet.

"SILENT alas! is ſhe for whom I mourn,"
Gone to that world from whence there's no return.
No more the virtues beaming in her mind,
Shall ſhine a bright example to mankind,
No more the worth that glow'd within her breaſt,
And all her heart and all her ſoul poſſeſt,
Shall teach the giddy flutt'rers who ſurvive,
How near perfection mortals may arrive,
Thro' a long life ſerenely how ſhe trod,
Calmly reſigned, and truſting in her God;
Ever obedient to his high command,
She meekly bow'd beneath his chaſt'ning hand,
Tho' fortune frown'd, and anguiſh tore her frame,
She murmur'd not, her temper ſtill the ſame,
But firmly bore adverſity's hard lot,
And patient ſuffer'd all the ills it brought,
Careful her various duties to attend,
She ſhone a wife, a mother, and a friend,
Her lively converſe cheared the ſocial hour,
And took from grief and care their ſad'ning pow'r;
Yet ceaſe ye friends to weep at her releaſe,
She changes———pain for joy and peace,
When here each proof of worth ſublime ſhe'd given,
Her ſainted ſpirit flew to its own Heav'n.

N O T E.

*We will thank the author for a continuance.

The Lake of Wyndermere.

HERE oft I rov'd a careleſs child
No bird more frolick play'd in air
I light flew through thy flow'ry wild
O'er thy green bank, ſweet Wyndermere!

The graſſy mountains would I view
When ſun of morn roſe bright and clear
Its rays their diſtant ſhadows drew,
On thy pure lake, ſweet Wyndermere!

Or when the moon ſoft radiance ſhed,
The ſhepherds' ſong oft ſooth'd mine ear,
With gentle footſteps would I tread
On thy green bank, ſweet Wyndermere!

No wave diſturbs thy tranquil breaſt,
While mine is rent with ſtormy care;
Ye hours adieu with pleaſure bleſt
Adieu ſweet lake, of Wyndermere!

ZELIA.

On Henry Hatton, Eſq; of the County Wexford.

WHILE tears of anguiſh ſwell the moaning wave,*
While ſighs of ſorrow raiſe the ſullen gale,
Let ev'ry heart with gentle pity heave,
While ſimple truth unfolds her woe worn tale.

In the low urn the youthful Henry lies,
Whoſe gen'rous heart with ev'ry virtue glow'd;
Now cloſ'd in death thoſe bright, thoſe radiant eyes,
Thoſe roſeate lips whence wit, whence ſweetneſs flow'd.

Low reſts that form where winning graces wreath'd,
All mute the numbers of that tuneful tongue,
Where fond affection, ever filial breath'd,
Where ſoft perſuaſion all enamour'd hung.

Sweet glowing roſe! tho' cruſh'd in opening bloom,
Tho' blaſted are thy fair yet tranſient charms,
Yet thoſe awake that fade not in the tomb,
That ſhine celeſtial in a Father's arms.

What tho' no heart received thy parting tear,
Yet kindred angels lull'd thy ev'ry pain,
When thou haſt known a Sire—Almighty's care,
Oh, then all grief, all anxious doubt were vain.

Tho' long is reſtleſs life's too cruel dream,
And ſweet the tuneful voice that bids us riſe.
And ſweet the heav'nly bright oblivious ſtream,
Where pain and care and earthly ſorrow dies.

Yet oft retired, ſhall guileleſs friendſhip mourn,
Full oft the untaught lyre moſt plaintive ſwell;
While virtue twines with fadeleſs wreaths thy urn
And weeping bids the noiſy world farewell.

ZELIA.

N O T E.

* The elegy was written while his remains were conveying to *Ireland*.

The

The following whimsical Epistle to a Friend was written by the late whimsical Doctor Byron, a famous teacher of short-hand.

Cadogan's Auction, and Father Mallebranche's Portrait.

WELL, dear Mr. Wright, I must send you a line,
The purchase is made—Father Mallebranche is mine.
The adventure is past which I long'd to atchieve,
And I'm so overjoy'd, you can hardly believe;
And if you'll have patience, I'll tell you, dear friend,
The whole history on't from beginning to end:
Excuse the long tale—I could write, Mr. Wright,
About this same picture from morning till night.

The morning it lour'd like the morning in Cato,
And brought on, methought, as important a day too;
But about ten o'clock it began to be clear,
And the fate of your capital piece drawing near,
I supp'd off a breakfast—some common decoction,
And away trudges I in all haste to the auction:
Should have call'd upon you—but the weaver's committee
Forbad me that pleasure—the more was the pity.

The clock struck elev'n as I enter'd the room,
Where Rembrandt and Guido were waiting their doom;
'Till at length in a corner perceiving the *Pere*,
Ha, quoth I to myself, my old friend, are you there!
And methought the face smil'd, just as if it would say.
What—you're come, Mr. Byron, to fetch me away.
Now before I had time to return it my answer,
Came a short-hander by—Jemmy Ord was the man, sir,
"So Doctor, good morrow,"—"So, Jemmy, *bon jour*
"Some fine pieces here." "Yes there are, to be sure."
"Shall we look at them round?"—"Aye, with all my heart, Jemmy."
So I walk'd up and down, and my old pupil wi' me,
Making still such remarks, as our wisdom thought proper,
As things were hit off on wood, canvas, or copper.

At length, about noon, Mr. Auctioneer Cock,
With his hammer and book, mounted up on his block,
Lot the first, Number one,—then advanc'd his upholder
With *Mallebranche*, as Atlas bore Heaven on his shoulder;
Now my heart, sir, it went pit a pat in good sooth,
To see the sweet face of the searcher of truth.
Ah! thought I to myself, if it cost me a million
This night, my good friend, thou shalt grace my pavilion.
This stood lot the first, both in number and worth,
If pictures were priz'd for the men they set forth.
I am sure, to my thinking, compar'd to this lumber
number,
All the lots in the room seem'd to be but mere
The head thus appearing, Cock left us to see't,
And immediately fell to describing its feet,—
So long and so broad—'tis a very fine head!
Please to put it up, ge'men, was all that he said.
Half a piece, and so on, for five pounds and a crown,
To sum up my good fortune I brought it me down.
There were three or four bidders, I cannot tell whether,
But I ne'er let them come two upon me together;
For as soon as one spoke, then immediately pop,
I advanc'd something more lest the hammer should drop;
I consider'd, should Cock take a whim on the sudden,
What, hurry 'twould put all my Lancashire blood in.
Once, twice, thrice—three pound five—and so *nemine con.*
Came an absolute rap, and thrice happy was John.
Who bought it? quoth Cock. Here's your money, quoth I,
Still willing to make the secureſt reply,
And the surest receipt that a body can trust
For preventing disputes, is to—*down with your dust.*
So I bought it and paid for't, and boldly I say,
'Twas the best purchase made at Cadogan's today:
The works the man made are the finest in nature,
And a most curious piece is his genuine portraiture.
For the rest of the pictures, and how they were sold,
To others at present I leave to be told:
They seem'd to go off as at most other sales,
Just as folks, money, judgment, or fancy prevails.

When the business was o'er, and the crowd somewhat gone,
Whip into a coach I convey'd number one:
Drive away, honest friend, fast as e'er you can spin:
So he did, and 'tis now safe and sound at Gray's Inn:
Done at Paris it was from the life, by N. Guerry
(Who that was I can't tell, but I wish his heart merry)
In the year 98, sixty years from the birth,
Of as great a Divine as ere liv'd upon earth.
And now, if some evening, when you are at leisure,
You'll come and rejoice with me over my treasure,
With a friend or two with you that can in free sort,
Let us mix metaphysics and short-hand, and port;
An hour we can cheerfully pass you shall find,
And talk of my purchase, or what you've a mind;
Such friends and such freedom, what can be more clever;
Huzza! *Father Mallebranche*, and short-hand for ever.

Epigram. On a famous Physician leaving Church during Divine Service.

WHILE holy prayers to heaven were made
One was prefer'd and answer'd too—
"Save us from sudden death," was said
And straight from church Sir Dick withdrew.

FOREIGN

BRITISH INTELLIGENCE.

Copy of a Letter from Lieut. J. C. Searle, commander of his Majesty's brig Liberty, to his Brother, dated from Guernsey.

I DO not think the naval history of any country records a more miraculous escape than we had from the hands of the enemy. About nine, on Tuesday night Feb. the 18th, we fell in with a frigate, which proved to be French. She outsailed the Liberty, so that notwithstanding our utmost exertions, at ten she was within half gun shot of us, and commenced her fire, which at first had no effect; but at half past ten she was within musket shot of us, and luffed up, and discharged her whole broadside, which shot away our main-top gallant haulyards, main-top-mast, studding haulyards, and main-top-sail braces. Although the shooting away the haulyards impeded us a little, the frigate retarded her own course more materially, by the injudicious mode of luffing up. At eleven she was again within musket shot, and repeated the same measure, carrying off with that broadside our fore-top braces, fore-top-gallant traces, and fore-top-mast studding-sail haulyards: she then kept up a continual fire from her bow chases, which frequently shot away parts of our running-rigging, and damaged our sails. As we saw the Casket lights a-head, and I thought there was a possibility of our reaching them before the enemy had damaged us very much, particularly if she followed the system of luffing up to bring her broadside to bear on us, instead of waiting till she got a-breast, when she might have sunk us, I determined not to bring to while I had a mast standing. At twelve she was as near as pistol-shot; then we had every thing to fear from her broadside, which I concluded must certainly knock the masts over board. We waited in solemn silence, apprehensive of the danger that awaited us, but determined not to give up the cause until we were rendered incapable of the least effort for the preservation of the liberty. At length it came, and providentially was not attended with any worse effect than either of the former. At one o'clock, we were not more than a quarter of a mile from the Casket rocks, and I was determined to risk our lives by running the brig on them, rather than suffer her to fall into their hands. However, I presumed our intentions were guessed at, and they did not choose to run the same risk, therefore they left off the chace.

The composure and steadiness of the whole ship's company, in such a situation for three hours and the greatest part of the time within musket-shot of a constant fire of such superior force, against which we could not make any resistance, delighted me beyond measure: and their active exertions in replacing such of the haulyards, &c. as were shot away during the chase, alone enabled us to save the Liberty.

You can better conceive than I can describe, the deplorable situation of the poor viscount, (a French emigrant nobleman, to whom lord Moira requested Mr. Searle to give a passage to Guernsey). We prevailed with him to use the disguise most likely to prevent discovery, and I promised my utmost exertions to carry him through; but at the same time gave him to understand, that there were pistols prepared as a dernier resort.

When all was over, I went down into my cabin to take some refreshment, and as soon as I returned on deck, I was saluted by the ship's company with three cheers, and thanked for my conduct. I cannot describe to you my feelings on that occasion. I could scarce refrain from tears, to think that such brave fellows should be obliged to fly before their enemies.

Our preservation for such a length of time, from the constant and heavy fire, within the reach of the smallest guns, and for the most part within musket-shot, is almost miraculous. The Fates seem to have decreed, that though English Liberty may be frequently endangered, it is still to exist.

The Liberty has been employed during the war to cruise off the coast of France, for intelligence from the royalists, and is known by all the frigates from Cherbourg, &c.

(Signed) RICHARD SEARLE.

Feb. 16.] The following orders for a general fast, issued by bishop Douglas, the Roman Catholic bishop of the London district, abounding throughout with that spirit of Christianity and attachment to our king and constitution, which ought to pervade, especially at this time, the breasts of all his majesty's subjects, were read from the altars of all the Catholic chapels within the metropolis.

"*Dearly beloved Brethren,*

"Our king and country being engaged in a just and necessary war, for the preservation not only of all those temporal blessings which we enjoy under the mild sway of his most gracious majesty, and under the excellent civil constitution of the kingdom, but also for the preservation of the general peace and order of the Christian world, and of Christianity itself; hence it is our duty, in common with our fellow-subjects, to strengthen the hands of government to the utmost of our power, that the same may be brought to a happy issue.

"We have all an interest in complying with this duty, which we owe to the state; inasmuch as it is well known, that those abandoned men, who have so impiously raged and devised vain things against the Lord, and against his anointed, have been particularly bent upon the destruction of our holy religion; against which their ensnaring forms of oaths, their horrid sacrileges, their outrageous and bloody persecutions, have been particularly directed.

"To secure success, however, to this great national undertaking, in which our temporal and eternal welfare are so deeply concerned, the essential point, unquestionably, is to obtain the blessing and assistance of heaven in our favour. The whole series of the divine prophecies, and the whole history of the people of God, as recorded in holy writ, shew all military success to be in the hands of the God of armies; and, that it is in the general economy of his providence to bestow it upon his servants, or to withhold it from them, accordingly as their crimes provoke his anger, or their piety claim his favour.

For these reasons, dearly beloved brethren, we earnestly exhort you, under the present circumstances, to humble yourselves before the Lord, that his judgments may be averted from our country; and to pour our most fervent supplications before the throne of grace, that we may obtain mercy and find grace in seasonable aid.

"With this view, we order all the faithful of our district to observe Friday the 28th of the present month, as a day of solemn fast, humiliation, and prayer.

"With the same view, we charge all our clergy, who have it in their power, to go up to the altar on that day, to offer the propitiatory sacrifice (*Missa tempore belli,*) and, previous to the public service, to sing or say the psalm *Miserere*, with the prayer *Deus qui culpa offenderis pœnitentia placaris*: And we most earnestly exhort all the lay persons, of our district and communion, devoutly to assist at the public service on that occasion. We farther ordain, that our clergy add daily in the holy sacrifice, as long as the war may continue, the Collect, &c. for the time of war. The Grace of our Lord Jesus Christ be with you all. Amen."

17.] Came on, at the Sessions-house in the Old Bailey, the trial of Mr. Eaton, bookseller, in Newgate-street, for a libel, contained in a pamphlet, entitled, "*Hog's Wash, or Politics for the People.*" The libel charged was a story told at a debating society, of a man who kept a game cock—The indictment charged, that under this fable of a game cock the present king was intended, and that it was published with a view to excite disaffection to the king and the regal government of this country, and to stir up sedition.

The indictment was opened by Mr. Fielding for the crown; and, as is customary upon these occasions, he introduced the French revolution, and said the libellous pamphlet in question, both from its title and tendency, was calculated to excite in the minds of the people discontents, disloyalty, and sedition.

A witness was called, who proved that he purchased the pamphlet at the shop of the defendant.

Mr. Gurney, council for the defendant, made an animated address to the jury.

He said, if the present indictment was to be sanctioned by the verdict of an English jury, the liberty of the press would be totally gone. He took notice of the practice of introducing the French revolution upon all prosecutions of this sort. This, he said, could only be done for the purpose of exciting prejudice, and seducing the passions of a jury to pronounce a verdict which ought to be the effect only of a conviction of their judgment. Mr. Gurney took a review of the late prosecutions for libels, upon which he animadverted in the most pointed terms. All these prosecutions, he said, were one side. The objects of them were those who had been so unfortunate as to adopt the *quondam* opinions of the duke of Richmond and Mr. Pitt, respecting a reform in parliament. The majesty of the people and the democratic part of the constitution might be libelled with impunity, but to impute any blame to the monarchical and aristocratical part of our government was a sin never to be forgiven.

Mr. Gurney concluded his speech by calling upon the jury to exercise the privilege the law had given them, and entreated them to add another bright example to those who had supported the liberty of the press, by a verdict of acquittal.

The jury took the indictment and pamphlet out of court with them, and after examining them both, returned with a verdict—Not Guilty.

The verdict was received with a burst of applause, expressed by a general clapping of hands.

BIRTH.

THE lady of sir John Stirling, of Glorathouse, in Stirlingshire, a son and a daughter. They have been married only eighteen years, and her ladyship has honoured sir John with 19 children.

DEATHS.

GUILLOTINED in France, Adrien Lamourette, aged 52, ci-devant member of the legislative assembly, and constitutional bishop of the department of the Rhone and the Loire. On being questioned as to his connexions with Mirabeau, he declared that he was convinced of the very immoral character of that man so shamefully celebrated. He also acknowledged himself to be the author of the discourses pronounced by Mirabeau on ecclesiastical matters—At his seat at Luxborough, full of years and honour, sir Edw. Hughes, K. B. admiral of the blue squadron of his majesty's fleet. He had served in the navy for more than half a century; was made a lieut. for his services at the taking of Porto Bello under admiral Vernon, and served as captain under admiral Boscawen at the taking of Louisbourg, and with sir Charles Saunders at the taking of Quebec. As an admiral he commanded in chief in the East Indies during the late war, and supported the honour of his country in several actions with an active enemy, to whom he was always inferior in number of ships.—At his house in Prince's-street, Bedford-row, aged 86, Edm. Kelly, esq. an attorney and solicitor of great honour and integrity, and descended from one of the most antient and respectable families in Ireland.—At his seat in Yorkshire, sir Charles Hotham, bart. a general of his majesty's forces, and knight of the most honourable order of the Bath. He has left estates in Yorkshire of above 6,000l. a year value. A moiety of these is hereditary property, the remainder a legacy from Mr. Thompson, the merchant; on account of which, sir Charles, some years ago, assumed the name of Thompson. These estates, by a settlement made three years since, were entailed on his nephew Charles, the eldest son of the bishop of Clogher. The only daughter of sir Charles has a reversionary interest in the settlement of her mother; and has, besides, a very considerable independent fortune, the bequest of her relation the countess of Suffolk; a part of which is the celebrated and beautiful villa of Marble-hill, a classic spot, immortalized by Pope and Swift. About three years ago, sir Charles resigned the place of gentleman

tleman of the chamber; but the king, agreeably to his declaration at that time, kept it open for him; ſir Charles, however, received no ſalary. That place, therefore, and his red ribbon, are now vacant.—At the Hotwells, Briſtol, lady Elizabeth King, eldeſt daughter of the earl of Exeter.—At Sunderland, Mr. T. Smart, ſhipowner. What added greatly to the grief of the family was, that the ſame night an account was received of the total loſs of the Betſy and Bruce, his property, on the coaſt of Holderneſs, and all the crew periſhed, among whom were two of his ſons.—At his houſe in Great Suffolk-ſtr. Charing-croſs, in his 83d year, Marriot Arbuthnot, eſq. admiral of the blue.—Lately, in Germany, Henry Yorke, eſq. late of Derby, who is ſaid to have conſiderably diſtinguiſhed himſelf in England by his exertions in the cauſe of liberty, and to have been a conſtant object of perſecution for his opinions. When he quitted this country, he paſſed into France by the way of Liege, and became a volunteer in the French army on the Rhine. He was immediately promoted to the rank of lieutenant colonel, and commanded the 55th regiment of infantry, under colonel d'Aubigny. When the regiment was ordered to march to aſſiſt in the ſtorming of the lines of Haguenau, inſtead of proceeding according to cuſtom on horſeback, at the head of his battalion, he marched at the head of them on foot, with a knapſack at his back, in the ſame manner as the reſt of his fellow-ſoldiers; with his ſword drawn he went along the ranks, encouraging his men with loud ſhouts and exhortations to advance with fixed bayonets, which they at length did, with an intrepidity that amounted almoſt to madneſs, and amidſt a tremenduous diſcharge of cannon. After having received a violent wound in his left arm, he perſevered, until, in attempting to carry the third row of redoubts, he received a mortal wound, and immediately fell, ſupported by two grenadiers, and a black trumpeter, and exclaiming, "I have done my part in ſerving human nature; I bid defiance to envy and malice; and glory, above all things, to die in the cauſe of liberty and equality, to which I have unremittingly devoted my days and my nights. Although I fall an early victim of this wide-waſting peſtilence, brought on us by a grand conſpiracy againſt the VIRTUES, I truſt my name ſhall not periſh, but that poſterity will remember, with holy veneration, the names of thoſe heroes whom the ſword of ſlaughter has deſtroyed while aſſerting the rights and liberties of mankind!"—John Schweighauſer, profeſſor of Greek and Oriental literature in the univerſity of Straſburgh, the German critick, who publiſhed Appian, in 1775, at Straſburgh, with learned notes, in three volumes; and Polybius, in ſix volumes, in 1789, 1790, 1792, at Leipſic; and Obſervations and Corrections on Suidas, at Straſburgh, 1790: has lately, with two other profeſſors, been guillotined at Straſbourgh; an event by which literature has ſuſtained, an important loſs. His dating the preface to the fifth volume of his Polybius, 1791, the third year of liberty reſtored to the Gallo-Francic people, could not protect him from their fury.—At Rothwell, county Northampton, of a dropſy, Mrs. Cogan, who, in two years and one month, was tapped 14 times, and had 327 quarts of water taken from her. And at the ſame place, of a mortification in his legs, Mr. Cogan, huſband of the above lady, who had practiſed as a ſurgeon, apothecary, and man-midwife, for near forty years.—At his chambers in Lincoln's-inn, Richard Burke, eſq. counſellor at law, recorder of Briſtol, and brother of the right hon. Edm. Burke; with whom and another relation he had ſupped the preceding evening, in Duke-ſtreet, St. James's, when he was in good health and ſpirits; and at twelve o'clock was carried in a coach to his chambers, where he was ſoon after taken very ill, and expired before three in the morning. He was uſually called *Dick Burke*, on account of his eaſy humour and familiar good-nature, and was a very valuable man. He poſſeſſed an underſtanding which, though diſtant from the tranſcendant powers of his brother, was highly reſpectable, and fraught with various and abundant knowledge. He excelled in repartee, which he delivered with a pleaſant quaintneſs, that gave an additional poignancy to the ſentiment. But it is the beſt part of the eulogium which his character demands, that he had an humane and honourable diſpoſition.

DOMESTIC INTELLIGENCE.

A REMARKABLE inſtance of ferocious reſentment lately occurred at Achill, a remote part of the county Mayo:—Two men having a difference about a horſe, went before a magiſtrate to have it adjuſted, with a third perſon as a witneſs. The horſe being awarded by the magiſtrate to one of the party, the other returned, much diſpleaſed, and having got home firſt, armed himſelf with a knife, and went to the houſe of his neighbour, who had been the ſucceſsful party againſt him, and killed his two infant children in the preſence of their mother, who expected her fate would be the next; but ſpared her, as ſhe was of his fleſh and blood, (being his couſin germain) he would not hurt her: he then cut the throats of ſome cows and horſes, which he found in an out-houſe; his next vengeance was directed againſt the perſon who had been the witneſs, to whoſe houſe he went and killed his cows, and, riding his horſe to a ſteep and rocky part of the ſhore, he cut the horſe's throat, and then threw himſelf into the ſea, but the waves diſappointing his purpoſe, threw him ſenſeleſs upon the ſtrand, where he was taken up and recovered.

Limerick, Feb. 24.] Laſt Tueſday evening, a dreadful affray took place between a party of recruits and a number of people in Jail ſtreet, Ennis, in which one of the former was unfor-

tunately killed on the ſpot, and two or three others badly wounded.

Trim, March 13.] The trial of Mullen, for the murder of the rev. Mr. Butler, came on yeſterday. The firſt evidence was the ſurgeon who attended the deceaſed. He depoſed, that the death of Mr. Butler was occaſioned by a gun-ſhot wound, and produced the bullets or ſlugs, which he extracted from the wounds. Having aſked the deceaſed if he ſaw the perſon who fired at him—his reply was—"that he only ſaw the flaſh of the pan—that he was confounded, and felt as if electrified—did not immediately perceive himſelf wounded, the report having ſtartled his horſe, who took to full gallop."

Lynch, the approver, was the next witneſs examined. He depoſed, that Mullen, the priſoner at the bar, himſelf, and two others, were hired, by Mr. Fay, to ſhoot Mr. Butler;—he was particular in ſtating, that Fay had conferred with him on the buſineſs, in his own office, and uſed the precaution of deſiring his clerk to retire for the purpoſe of ſecrecy:—his confederates and he agreed for a certain ſum to effect the deed;—Mr. Fay himſelf caſt the bullets from leaden ſpoons, charged the blunderbuſs, which he, the evidence, was ordered to uſe, he took it with him to the place appointed to way-lay the deceaſed, accompanied by the priſoner and the other confederates. As Mr. Butler approached, he, the witneſs, laid the blunderbuſs down, which the priſoner at the bar inſtantly took up—they concealed themſelves behind a buſh, and when Mr. Butler appeared near enough to fire at, the priſoner at the bar took aim at him through the buſh and fired—Mr. Butler's horſe plunged and galloped forward, on which the reſt of his aſſociates and himſelf, (the witneſs) except Mullen, were determined to follow and diſpatch him, but the priſoner at the bar cried out theſe words—"Let the robber die in pain!"

The bullets were produced to the court, were examined and proved to be lead.

The approver Lynch underwent a croſs-examination of more than two hours, and what is extraordinary, his ſtory was ſo well fabricated, and he came ſo well prepared, that the ſlighteſt deviation did not appear in the courſe of his teſtimony.

The priſoner pleaded an alibi which in his caſe appeared ſingularly pointed and conſiſtent.

The overſeer of the royal canal depoſed that the priſoner had been engaged for ſome time previous to the murder of Mr. Butler in labouring work at the royal canal—that he worked all the day on which the murder was alledged to have been committed until the uſual hour, and came to his work on the following morning at the accuſtomed time.

The witneſs corroborated his teſtimony by producing his book, in which the hours of the priſoner's departure from his work, and arrival next morning were noted.

Another evidence depoſed, that he was in the habit of ſleeping with the priſoner, that he ſlept with him particularly on the night of the alledged murder—and that the priſoner did not abſent himſelf either on that night or on any previous or ſucceeding night.

Certain perſons gave teſtimony to the character of the priſoner which had been always irreproachable—while that of Lynch the approver, was equally infamous.

The trial laſted until after ten o'clock at night when the jury retired for a few minutes, and returned a verdict NOT GUILTY.

This day, Mr. Fay's trial came on for conſpiring the death of Mr. Butler. He was honourably acquitted—no evidence having appeared againſt him except that execrable villain Lynch.

Mr. Fay's character in this county is highly reſpectable. He gives bread to numbers of poor working people, and is ſaid ever to have demeaned himſelf ſo as to conciliate the eſteem of all who dealt with him or knew him.

The abandoned conſpirators againſt the life and credit of ſo worthy and uſeful a member of ſociety will ſooner or later meet with the vengeance of a juſt providence."

DUBLIN, *Feb.* 23, 1794.

AT night, about twenty of thoſe new-raiſed troops, lately arrived from England, made their appearance on the Bray road, with a fellow-ſoldier tied as a deſerter. Under pretence of preſſing cars for the purpoſe of conveying their priſoner to town, they levied contributions at the point of the bayonet, from a number of poor countrymen, to the amount of from one to five ſhillings each, in order to enlarge their cars and horſes. As we have the aſſurances of a gentleman for the truth of a conduct which otherwiſe we might have doubted, it ſhould be the care of thoſe preſiding over ſuch young and undiſciplined ſoldiers, to nip a ſpirit of this kind early, and keep them to their barrack after ſuch unſeaſonable hours, or, if they have any duty to perform, to ſee it executed under the direction of a reſponſible leader.

25.] Ode performed this day at the Caſtle of Dublin, being the day appointed for the celebration of the birth-day of her majeſty queen Charlotte.

RECITATIVE.

This annual tribute, gracious queen,
The muſe delights to pay,
And glories in the duteous ſtrain,
That hails thy natal day.

CHORUS.

Imperial Charlotte; be it long thy fate
The ſplendor of Britannia's throne to ſhare,
Relieve the burthen of majeſtic ſtate,
And blend love's roſes with the thorns of care!

RECITATIVE.

Princes, too oft, by laws confin'd
Which love's ingenuous choice reſtrain,
Alas! in wedlock are conſign'd
As policy of ſtates ordain.

AIR.

'Twas thine, Oh! favour'd maid to meet
A monarch, in the bloom of youth,
In perſon, and in mind complete,
Worthy thy virtue, love, and truth.

REC-

RECITATIVE.

Heav'n on the league propitious deign'd to ſhine,
And ſtamp'd thee parent of a noble line.

AIR.

To brighten thy maturer ſtate,
Still higher bleſſings on thee wait;
In thy illuſtrious lineage Britons trace
The genuine fire of Brunſwick's warlike race.

AIR.

The mother's feelings half-ſuppreſs'd
Within thy zeal-impaſſion'd breaſt,
Thy royal ſons are freely giv'n
To wield the ſword of righteous heav'n.

RECITATIVE.

For thee, Britannia, lo! for thee
Domeſtic ſafety they forego,
To ſet afflicted thouſands free
And lay their fell deſtroyers low.

DUET.

For virtue, and for thee, they brave
The various dangers of the war,
They dare deſtruction but to ſave,
And thirſt for conqueſt, but to ſpare.

FULL CHORUS.

Brethren, attend! and when they ſhall return,
Grudge not the meed, which gratitude imparts,
But make their royal parent's boſoms burn
With the loud welcome of your honeſt hearts!

26.] In conſequence of warm words in the commiſſion court, a meeting took place in the Phenix-Park, between Mr. Serjeant Barrington and L. M'Nally, eſq. Two ſhots were exchanged each;—with the latter Mr. M'Nally was wounded in the hip, upon which the ſeconds interfered—Mr. Harding was ſecond to the Serj. Mr. Sheers to the other.

March 1.] His majeſty's Stamp-office was broke open and robbed, laſt night or early this morning, and an iron cheſt carried away from the receiver-general's office, containing a quantity of light gold, to the amount of 150l. or thereabouts; alſo, three orders from the commiſſioners of the revenue on the collector of the port of Dublin, to Peter Holmes, diſtributor of ſtamped goods in Dublin, for the ſeveral ſums of 273l. 5s.—426l. 10s.—77l. 13s. Two debentures for canal ſtock, payable to Edward Fitzgerald, with printed receipts, to the right hon. David Latouche, for the different payments made on canal ſtock; ſeveral bank of Ireland receipts for ſpecie and bills; two draft check-books on the bank of Ireland; ſeveral acquittances, and numbers of vouchers for money paid for Peter Holmes, eſq. and Samuel Hayes, eſq. together with ſeveral other papers and deeds.

A proclamation was publiſhed next day, with an offer of 200l. reward for the diſcovery of the thieves, and a pardon for any one who would diſcover his accomplices.

8.] Sunday morning early, the iron cheſt, of which the Stamp-office had been robbed, was diſcovered in the fields at the rere of Baggot-ſtreet, and yeſterday morning it was brought to the Stamp-office by the perſon that found it, who received ten guineas for his trouble.

Upon examination, every thing it contained when taken way, except the light gold, were found in the cheſt; the very bags that held the caſh were in it.

At the commencements, held on Tueſday laſt, in our univerſity, by the right hon. John lord viſc. Fitzgibbon, lord high chancellor of Ireland, and vice chancellor of the univerſity; the undernamed gentlemen were admitted to the following degrees:

Rev. Wm. Hamilton, D. D.
Rev. Francis Browne, LL. D.
Richard Kirwan, eſq. LL. D. Honoris cauſa.
Rev. Richard Graves, Rev. Geo. Miller, D. B.
* Martin Tuomy, M. B.
Rev. John Draſtan, Rev. —— Wright, Rev. Wm. White, and Rev. John Hoare, A. M.
* Martin Tuomy, Richard Richardſon, * Fran. Magan, Wm. Drought, John Nowlan, Ralph Ward Reid, * Richard Deaſe, Andrew Barnard, Abraham Hamilton, Wm. Ball, Daniel Lloyd, Thomas Skelton, Robert Bell, Edward Kelly Groves, Edward Bolingbrooke Ayres, William Whiteſide, David Fitzgerald, James Auchenleck, Robert Nixon, Robert Sillito, James Wilſon, Wm. Boyd, Thomas George Digby, Fielding Ould, * Thomas M'Mullen, John Cox, Robert Mockler, Robert Rogers Wilmot, John Overend, Henry Adair, Francis Deſpard, Edw Stopford, Alex. Montgomery, Wm. Hoare, Jas. Sturrock, John Kelly Groves, John Haughton, John Lloyd, John Daniel, Francis Hamilton, Sam. Campbell, John Aſhe, Robert Porter, Fielding Lyſter, * Oliver Jackſon, Richard Eaton, Bernard Ward, Andrew Walſh, James O'Brien, Kilner Daviſon, Wm. Lefanue, and James Clarke, A. B.

N. B. The perſons to whom this mark * is prefixed are Roman Catholics, and are the firſt gentlemen *avowedly* of that religious perſuaſion ever admitted to a degree in the univerſity of Dublin.

New Hackney-Coach Stands.

The commiſſioners of the police, for the greater convenience of the public, and in order to accommodate them, have divided the ſeveral coach ſtands into the following places,

Aungier-ſtreet, in the center of ſaid ſtreet,	14
Whitefriar-ſtreet, in the wideſt part,	4
Lower Kevin-ſtreet, from Redmond's-hill, to be in the center of Kevin-ſtreet, -	8
Merrrion-ſtreet, oppoſite the dead wall, to range in the center of ſaid ſtreet, -	10
Denzil ſtreet, at the eaſt end, - - -	3
College-ſtreet, from Fleet-lane to the end of ſaid ſtreet, along the college-wall, -	19
High-ſtreet, from Chriſt Church-lane to Michael's-lane, keeping the right hand of ſaid ſtreet from Skinner-row, - -	2
Thomas-ſtreet, from Dirty-lane to James's gate, to ſtand in the center, - - -	2
James's-ſtreet, from James's-gate to the fountain, to ſtand in the center, - -	2
Coombe, oppoſite the Weaver's-hall, to ſtand in the center, - - - -	2

Ormond-

Ormond-quay, from Eſſex to Ormond-bridge, along the quay-wall, - - - 20
Straw-market, from Smithfield to Queen-ſt. to ſtand in the center, - - 5
Liffey-ſtreet, from Abbey-ſtreet to Mary-ſt. keeping to the right hand of Liffey-ſtreet from Abbey-ſtreet, - - 8
Lower Abbey-ſtreet, from Union-ſtreet to the Dock, to ſtand in the center of ſaid ſtreet, - - - - 8
Great Britain-ſtreet, from the corner of Sackville-ſtreet to Marlborough-ſtreet, center, - - - - 7
Bolton-ſtreet, from the fountain to the corner of Dominick-ſtreet, center, - 8
Temple-ſtreet, ſouth end, center, - - 4

17. Three perſons were robbed and ſtripped nearly naked, at a ſmall diſtance from Harold's-croſs, between eight and nine o'clock on Monday night. There is no doubt but the robbers conſidered that evening and night as a favourable opportunity for ſuch attempts, on account of the many perſons expected to be returning homeward rather late, to parts near this city, from their having indulged rather too freely in taking a glaſs during the day time.

18.] Within a ſhort period ſome very daring robberies have been committed on the high road between Waterford and Kilkenny, by three foot-pads, who cut and abuſe even the unreſiſting. Yeſterday ſen'night they ſtopped a Mr. Mullan, between Luke's-Well and Mullinevat, robbed him of a guinea and a half, and ſtruck him repeatedly. The ſame evening, and about the ſame place, they robbed Mr. Madigan, of Mullinevat, of what money he had, which was fortunately but a few ſhillings—a man who was with Mr. Madigan, and who had a conſiderable ſum about him, ran off on their firſt appearance, and reached Mullinevat ſafe.

Wedneſday ſen'night, a labouter burning lime at a kiln near Callan, ventured to ſtand on the ignited matter in the kiln, intending to tread it down more cloſely, when the whole maſs ſunk with him, and the unfortunate man was burnt to death.

20.] A few days ſince a moſt notorious fraud was attempted on board an outward bound American veſſel—a bailiff and his companion went on board this ſhip, and pretending they had an execution againſt a perſon who was a paſſenger, they ſeized and brought on ſhore two very large cheſts. As they were proceeding home, they were met by the owner of one of the cheſts, who, knowing it to be his property, ſeized it, and by applying to a magiſtrate, and enumerating the contents of the cheſt, had it reſtored to him, and the bailiff placed in cuſtody of the police, whilſt the other cheſt was ſeized for whoever ſhould be the owner, who was a ſeaman of the American veſſel. He ſoon came and identified the cheſt, but could not get it reſtored till he procured an order from a magiſtrate; but the bailiff in the mean time was bailed out of the police: however, a worthy alderman being made acquainted with the fraud, thought proper to commit the bailiff to priſon. The deſign of the fellows was, to ſeize any property on which they could lay their hands, on board the ſhip, under the above pretence, which they thought they could do with impunity, as the ſhip waited only for a wind; and if they could have once lodged their booty, and the ſhip had ſailed, they would have triumphed in their theft. This, however, was luckily prevented by their meeting the owner of the cheſt, and we hear application will be made to the ſheriffs to diſcharge this officer, who is a diſgrace even to bailiffs.

21] Early on Wedneſday morning a duel was fought in the Phenix-Park, between captain S. of one of the regiments of militia, and E. H. eſq. of this city. The firſt ſhots of each were fired without effect, but the ſecond paſſed thro' the hat of captain S. and Mr. H. was ſlightly wounded in the right breaſt; after which the matter was amicably terminated.

Extract of a Letter from Bandon, Feb. 25.

"On Wedneſday laſt accounts came to this town, that thoſe deluded people called white-boys were up in conſiderable numbers, about Dunmanway, Ballyhaneen and Inniſkean; ſeveral perſons were ſworn by them to pay no taxes, hearthmoney, or tythes, and to obey capt. Right in all his orders—they threatened to come to Bandon. The Union corps immediately turned out, and offered its ſervice to the magiſtrates, to co-operate with the army in any manner they thought proper for the public defence. On Thurſday that active magiſtrate Henry Cox, Eſq. from Dunmanway, took a guard of the union into the ſuburbs of this town, where he made a priſoner, and ſafely lodged him in the barracks: ſame day lieut. Powel, with a party of the 14th light dragoons, attended by a magiſtrate, ſcoured the country, through Inniſkean, Ballyhaneen, &c.

"The country at preſent wears the appearance of quiet, and it is hoped that thoſe poor deluded people, who are leading to their ruin by deſigning men, may in time ſee the error of flying in the face of the laws of their country. A large party of infantry are gone to Dunmanway to attend on Mr. Cox."

Letters of a more recent date from Cork mention, that a number of perſons, aſſembled for the purpoſes abovementioned, were ſurrounded by the Tipperary militia, and conducted to Cork.

The Cork papers inform us, that the poor inhabitants of ſeveral pariſhes in the vicinity of Dunmanway had it as their object to hold a convention for petitioning parliament to aboliſh tythes, to extend the right of franchiſe to all houſekeepers, to regulate the ſetting of lands ſo as to allow the farmer a certain proportion of the value, to aboliſh uſeleſs places, revoke penſions, eſtabliſh parochial ſchools, and build aſylums for the poor with the revenues beſtowed on the undeſerving. ——If ſuch were the intentions of thoſe miſguided people, they did not conſider that, in the firſt inſtance, their aſſembling was an illegal act, and, as to the objects of meeting, a compliance would overſet ſeveral eſtabliſhed and indiſpenſable principles of our ſyſtem.

A butcher on Wedneſday ſe'nnight, exhibited a dog in the North Shambles of Cork, and ſold it as lamb. In order, when detected, to avoid the

the puniſhment due to ſo villainous a tranſaction he has abſconded.

Extract of a Letter from Cork, March 13.

"On Sunday, a magiſtrate near Ballinhaſſig, went with a few friends and ſome police to endeavour to diſperſe a large body of legiſlators, who were tendering unlawful oaths; they immediately attacked him with a ſhower of ſtones, which wounded ſome of the gentlemen—a few ſhots were fired, by which two of them fell; one received a ball in the breaſt, and another in the ſhoulder. On Monday, the inſurgents again aſſembled in ſtill greater numbers, tendering the oath; the ſame magiſtrate went, with 30 of the Carlow militia, and read the riot act, and expoſtulated with them in vain; they attacked him and his party with ſtones, and wounded a magiſtrate who accompanied him. At length the militia fired, three were killed on the ſpot, ſeveral wounded, (ſome of them mortally) and four principals taken, who are lodged in gaol. This happened at Ballinhaſſig, one mile ſouth of Tracton. Nothing could exceed the ſteady conduct of the Carlow militia on this occaſion. It is hoped this example will have effect, and convince theſe people they ſhall not trample on the laws with impunity.

"On Saturday laſt, ſir Henry Mannix, attended by a party of cavalry, made a very extenſive circuit through the pariſhes of Carrigtohill and Great-Iſland, and went to different chapels where he was informed that ſome tumultuous perſons propoſed to adminiſter illegal oaths. In his progreſs he received information againſt numbers who have been concerned in tendering ſuch oaths."

On Friday the 28th ult. the Fanny, of Crookhaven, on her paſſage from Dublin to Limerick, was wrecked in a violent gale of wind, at Ballyrickard, in Crookhaven bay. Robert Notter, the maſter and owner, and two ſeamen, being the whole of the crew, were unfortunately drowned. The veſſel was laden with iron, bedſteads, bedding, &c. for ſoldiers.

BIRTHS.

IN Abbey-ſtreet, the lady of Henry Gonne Bell, eſq. a daughter.—At Rathangan, co. Kildare, the lady of captain Grattan, a dau.—The lady of John Finlay, eſq. one of the knights of the ſhire for the county Dublin, a ſon.—The lady of the honourable Francis Hely Hutchinſon, a ſon.—The lady of Daniel Maunſell, eſq. a ſon.—In Rutland-ſquare, the lady of the right hon. Wm. Forward, a daughter.—At Caſtle-Garden, the lady of captain T. George Armſtrong, a daughter.—At Tuam, the lady of the rev. archdeacon Burton, a ſon.

MARRIAGES.

AT Woodſdown, the rev. Edward Lloyde, rector of Kilmaſtulla, to Miſs Connor, dau. of the late Daniel Connor, of Cork, eſq.—By ſpecial licence, Geo. Pigott, of Knapton, Queen's co. eſq. to Miſs Anna Iſabella Kelly, dau. of the right hon. Thomas Kelly, one of the judges of the court of common pleas.—At Galway, Walter Blake, eſq. third ſon of ſir Walter Blake, of Menlough, bart. to Mrs. Bingham, relict of the late Henry Bingham, of Newbrook, co. Mayo, eſq.—Wm. Roper, eſq. to Miſs Fiſh, daughter of the late Rob. Fiſh, of Caſtle-Fiſh, co. Kildare, eſq.—James Buchanan, of Ballycumber, King's co. eſq. to Miſs Grant, daughter of the late major Grant, of Carnelly, co. Clare.—Thomas Greve, of the co. Donegal, eſq. to Miſs Mary Suſanna Greve, ſecond daughter of the rev. Wm. Greve, of Charlesfort, co. Sligo.—Joſeph Maſon, eſq. to Miſs Andrews, of Ranelagh-road, ſiſter of alderman Andrews.——Anthony Duplouy, of Drogheda, eſq. to Miſs Sutton, of William-ſtr.—Edward Southwell Trotter, of Downpatrick, eſq. to Miſs Maria Price.—At Limerick, John Adam, eſq. to Miſs Vincent, daughter of alderman Vincent, of Parteen.—Tho. Stewart, eſq. to Miſs Palmer, daughter of the late Tho. Palmer, eſq.—Edward Philips, of Clonmore, co. Mayo, eſq. to Miſs M'Dermott, of Mt. Talbot, co. Roſcommon.—At Iſland-bridge, Ben. Bradſhaw, of Greenfield, co. Tipperary, eſq. to Miſs Webb, only daughter and heireſs of the late captain John Webb.

DEATHS.

IN Fiſhamble-ſtreet, Hyacinth Kirwan, of Gardenfield, co. Galway, eſq. On Summer-hill, the rev. doctor Mercer, late of Crumlin, co. Dublin.—In Frederick-ſtreet, aged 64, Tho. Coghlan, of Strawberry-hill, King's co. eſq. member of parliament for the bo. of Augher. By his death, an eſtate worth near 5000l. per annum, devolves to his nephew Denis Bowes Daly, eſq. one of the knights of the ſhire for the King's co. which in addition to his former fortune, will render him one of the richeſt commoners now in Ireland.—In Kilkenny, aged 104, Mrs. Ryan, relict of the late Jeremiah Ryan, of Danganmore, eſq.—In Lower Brook-ſtreet, (London) the right hon. the counteſs of Digby, relict of the late earl of Digby in Gt. Britain, and lord Digby, of Geaſhill, Ireland.—In the 64th year of his age, Adam Colclough, of Duffrey-hall, eſq.——Maſter Peter Metge, only ſon of the hon. baron Metge.——At Waterford, Theodore Cooke, eſq. an eminent attorney.——In Arlington-ſtreet, (London) the right hon. lady Eardley, lady of lord Eardley, of the kingdom of Ireland.—At Cork, Thomas Chatterton, eſq. clerk of the crown for the counties of Waterford and Cork.—At Waterford, Mrs. Hobbs, lady of Wm. Hobbs, eſq.——At Cork, lieutenant Lane, of his majeſty's ſhip Swiftſure.—At Charlesfort, near Kells, Mich. Tiſdall, eſq.—At Limerick, Mrs. Vize, lady of John Vize, eſq. M. D.——At Caſtletown, Queen's co. Mrs. Louiſa Price, relict of the late Edward Price, eſq.—The right honourable Hercules Langford Rowley, M. P. for the co. Meath, and father of the houſe of commons.

PROMOTIONS.

MAJOR-general Charles Euſtace, elected a repreſentative in parliament for the bor. of

of Clonmines.——*The right hon. lord viſcount Caulfield, and the hon. Mr. Burke, elected members of the Hiſtori al Society of Trin. Col.*——*The hon. John Knox, to be eſcheater of the province of Munſter.*——*The right hon. Cha. lord viſcount Loftus, and the heirs male of his body, the dignity of an earl of this kingdom, by the title of earl of Ely.*—*Charles-William Quin, and William Harvey, eſqrs. to be phyſicians-general to his majeſty's army in Ireland.*——*The right hon. Sylveſter Douglas, elected a repreſentative in parliament for the bor. of St. Canice, alias Iriſhtown.*——*The right hon. Geo. lord viſcount Macartney, K. B. and the heirs male of his body, the dignity of an earl, by the title of earl Macartney.*——*Lieut. colonel Geo. Hewitt, to be lieutenant-colonel-commandant; Geo. Cockburne, eſq. to be lieutenant-colonel; Wm. Byng, eſq. to be major; and Wm. M'Caſkill, eſq. to be captain of a new raiſed regiment.*——*J. Ormſby Vandeleur, eſq. to be captain, and Richard Roberts, eſq. to be captain-lieutenant, in the 8th light dragoons.*—*The rev. Francis Browne, LL. D. to be dean of the cathedral church of Elphin, the rev. dean Barry deceaſed.*—*Doctor Daniel Bryan, elected phyſician to the Blue-coat-hoſpital, doctor Harvey reſigned.*

LIST OF HIGH SHERIFFS FOR THE YEAR 1794.

Antrim, Roger Moore, of Clover-hill, eſq.——*Armagh*, John Ogle, of Fork-hill, eſq.——*Cork*, John Wallis, of Weſt-wood, eſq.——*Cavan*, Thomas Fleming, of Caſtle-Coſby, eſq.——*Carlow*, William Browne, of Browne's-hill, eſq.——*Clare*, George Studder, of Clonderlaw, eſq.——*Donegal*, Ralph Babbington, of Wall-town, eſq.——*Down*, Honourable Veſey Knox.——*Dublin*, St. George O'Kelly, of Newtown-Park, eſq.——*Fermanagh*, William Tredennick, eſq.——*Galway*, Eardwd Martin, of Tullyrea, eſq.——*Kerry*, Barry Denny, of Tralee, eſq.——*Kildare*, Eyre Powell, of Hillsborough, eſq.——*Kilkenny*, Richard Alcock, of Caſtle-Coſby, eſq.——*King's county*, Robert James Enraght, eſq.——*Leitrim*, Wm. Rowley, of Drumſna, eſq.——*Limerick*, John Weſtropp, of Ballyſtreen, eſq.——*Londonderry*, ——————.——*Longford*, Wm. Bond, eſq.——*Louth*, Francis Manning, of Drakeſtown, eſq.——*Mayo*, Martin Kirwan, of Claremount, eſq.——*Meath*, Thomas Rothwell, of Burfordſtown, eſq.——*Monaghan*, Alexander Kerr, of Newbliſs, eſq.——*Queen's county*, George Hartpole, of Shrull, eſq.——*Roſcommon*, Gilbert King, of Charleſtown, eſq.——*Sligo*, John Jones, of John's Port, eſq.——*Tipperary*, Daniel Minchin Toler, jun. of Beech-wood, eſq.——*Tyrone*, Henry Corry Moutray, of Favor-Royal, eſq.——*Waterford*, Pierce Power, of Affane, eſq.——*Weſtmeath*, Stern Tighe, of Carrick, eſq.——*Wexford*, William Pierce Piggott, of Slevy, eſq.——*Wicklow*, Charles Stanley Monck, of Charleville, eſq.

CIRCUITS OF THE JUDGES.

Lent Circuit 1794.	N. East.	Munster.	Leinster.	Connaug.	N. West.
	Juſt. Downes Juſt. Chamb. W. Calb. eſq.	Chief Baron Prime Serj.	Bn. Smith S. Chatterton	Juſtice Boyd Sol. General	Juſt. Kelly Juſt. Crooke
Monday, *March* 10	Trim	———	———	———	———
Wedneſday, 12	———	Waterford	———	———	———
Monday, 17	Dundalk	Clonmel	———	———	———
Monday, 24	Monaghan	Limerick	———	———	———
Wedneſday, 26	———	———	Naas	Ennis	———
Friday, 28	Armagh	———	———	———	———
Saturday, 29	———	———	Philipſtown	———	———
Monday, 31	———	———	———	Galway	Mullingar
Wedneſday, *April* 2	———	———	Marybor.	———	———
Thurſday, 3	———	———	———	———	Longford
Friday, 4	Carrickferg.	Tralee	———	———	———
Saturday, 5	———	———	———	Caſtlebar	———
Monday, 7	———	———	———	———	Cavan
Wedneſday, 9	———	———	Carlow	———	———
Thurſday, 10	———	———	———	Sligo	Enniſkillen
Friday, 11	Downpatrick	———	———	———	———
Saturday, 12	———	———	Kilkenny	———	———
Monday, 14	———	Cork	———	Carrick	———
Tueſday, 15	———	———	———	———	Omagh
Wedneſday, 16	———	———	———	Roſcommon	———
Saturday, 19	———	———	Wexford	———	———
Monday, 21	Drogheda	———	———	———	———
Wedneſday, 23	———	———	———	———	Lifford
Friday, 25	———	———	Wicklow	———	———
Monday, 28	———	———	———	———	Londonderry

10 SE 56

M. ROBERTSPIERRE.

Member of the

French National Convention.